

THE READER

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 53, Vol. III.

Saturday, January 2, 1864.

{ Price Fourpence ;
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The Report of the Directors for the Year 1862 was read; it showed:

That the Fire Premiums of the Year were £436,065 0 0
Against those in 1861, which were . . . 369,131 0 0

Giving an increase in 1862 of . . . £75,934 0 0

That the new Life business comprised the issue of 785 Policies, insuring . . . 467,334 0 0

On which the Annual Premiums were . . . 13,935 7 11

That there was added to the Life Reserve 79,277 11 4

That the balance of undivided Profit was increased . . . 25,725 9 7

That the Invested Funds of the Company amounted to . . . 1,417,808 8 4

In reference to the very large increase of £75,000 in the Fire Premiums of the year, it was remarked in the Report, "The Premiums paid to a company are the measure of that company's business of all kinds: the Directors therefore prefer that test of progress to any the duty collected may afford, as that applies to only a part of a company's business, and a large share of that part may be, and often is, re-insured with other offices. In this view, the yearly addition to the Fire Premiums of the Liverpool and London Company must be very gratifying to the proprietors."

SWINTON BOULT, Secretary to the Company.
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R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

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THE READER.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 2, 1864.

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THACKERAY.

NINE mornings ago the noble Thackeray, for whom we had all anticipated a longer life of continued activity and honour than the fifty-two years he had then attained, was found dead in his bed; and for three days already his body has been resting in its grave at Kensal Green. London, and all Great Britain, and all that portion of the earth that is reached by our English tongue, are so much poorer at this beginning of a new year than they thought to be as the old year was drawing to its close. It will be told hereafter how Thackeray lived almost to the end of the year 1863, and how, just as men began to write 1864, he was missed from the midst of them.

London will miss him. When we image to ourselves what London is and what has been its history, it is astonishing how much of what is fondest in our representations consists of recollections of the successive clusters of eminent men, and especially of eminent men of letters, that have there passed their lives. As far back as the days of Chaucer and Gower the tradition begins; it is but faintly kept up from that period till it bursts forth afresh in the glorious London of Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, and all the Elizabethans; since which time what is London, in the popular notion of its history, but that ever-growing, ever-roaring city in the midst of which company after company of the natural successors of those poetic and dramatic Elizabethans have found their habitations and inducements, their hard or easy livelihood, and their noted or unnoted graves? To the Elizabethans succeeded the Wits of the Restoration, apart from whom, in an obscure outskirts, sat Milton, old and blind; to these the Wits of Queen Anne's reign; and to these the Georgians, elder, middle, and later, to the verge of our own times. In each generation, of course, there have been men of literary celebrity, not congregated in London, but distributed over the rest of the land, whether in other cities or in country-neighbourhoods; and sometimes the centre of greatest intellectual power has certainly not been in the metropolis. But, in

the main, the greatest quantity of British literary talent, at any one time, has always, for natural reasons, been aggregated in London; and the conspicuous literary cluster of any one time has consisted of men and women whom their contemporaries could recognise as Londoners. In our own age, more expressly than in most others, this has been the case. If we reckon this age from the beginning of our present sovereign's reign in 1837, and if, adopting a collective name that has been proposed, we call the British authors of these last twenty-six years "the Victorians," then a more than usual proportion of these Victorians have belonged, or are still belonging, to London. It is a cluster to be proud of—a cluster that will shine in our literary history, even when the lustre of the preceding Georgian era of Dr. Samuel Johnson, and that of the earlier era of Queen Anne's Wits, are still remembered in the comparison. Who shall venture to draw up now a complete list of these eminent Victorians—including alike the historians, the poets, the novelists, the moralists, and the philosophers whom future times are likely to take account of under that designation? Or who so bold as, out of the forty or fifty of all orders that might compose such a list of the indubitably eminent, to select five or six, and aver, "These are they that will be looked back upon as the pre-eminent of our era, as the Victorian stars of the greatest magnitude"? We are in the noise and dust of the present; the most blatant and sociable have it their own way for a season; and, in the fall and click of a thousand hammers, few can tell who is working in pinchbeck, and who is beating and shaping the finest gold. Time will find out; or, if even Time should not trouble itself to do so, what does it matter? One of our Victorians, however, we can all at this moment speak of with certainty as sure to rank among the pre-eminent of that designation, however strict may be the posthumous criticism. We have laid him this week in the cemetery of Kensal Green.

Exclude our purely scientific men, exclude our artists, and think only of our men of letters since Queen Victoria came to the throne; and, whatever common measure of intellectual power or of influence may then be applied to the forty or fifty of all orders who may be reckoned up as eminent Victorians under that designation, Thackeray will figure as indubitably one of the chief. As one of our contemporaries has already remarked, Thackeray was characteristically a Victorian—pre-eminently a writer whom our era can claim as, both chronologically and by the cast of his genius, belonging to itself. And he was, distinctly, throughout his literary life, one of the London cluster of our Victorians. Born in India, but educated here, first at that Charterhouse School of which he delighted to make mention, and then at Cambridge, he had destined himself, in so far as for any profession at all, for that of Art; and it was not till after he had travelled about and seen much of the world in his youth that circumstances placed the pen in his hand and fixed him in his true position as a London man of letters. It was precisely in the first years of Queen Victoria's reign that Thackeray became a writer for London newspapers and periodicals; and the twenty-six years of this reign that have now elapsed exactly measure the duration of Thackeray's literary career. For at least ten years of this time he was a Londoner simply—unknown beyond the limits of the Fleet-Street and Pall-Mall world, though there were discerning friends there who marked his great powers and prophesied their wider recognition; and it is only since about 1847, that, with the full cognisance of the Three Kingdoms, Thackeray, still moving among Londoners, has been looked at by them as one of those pre-eminent five or six of their number whom History will remember as among the most illustrious of Queen Victoria's subjects. How nobly by his very presence he sustained this high honour! Who that has seen Thackeray

can ever lose the image of that tall great figure, beside which even tall men in a room seemed lessened, or of that broad and massive head, prematurely grey? As there was no man better known in the society of London or more constantly in the midst of it, so there was no man in it that all in all gave one an impression of greater dignity, or strength, or wit, or weight. Not abundant in speech, but frank, choice, decisive, indignant where there was need, and sometimes daringly trenchant and contemptuous, he had a tongue that well served, for those who knew his ways, his powerful and original brain. And now no more will that peculiar voice be heard, and that large figure seen among the Londoners. No more, when a London social gathering is to take place, will it be announced, as something worth knowing, that Thackeray is to be there; no more, on going to such a gathering, will Thackeray's unexpected presence make the occasion more memorable. One of the great stars of our Victorian cluster has vanished from the London sky.

What the loss is to the land at large and to the British Literature of our epoch who can at present tell? No more, in periodicals, or in books, shall we expect new issues of that charming, graceful, exact, and transparent English, which we recognised at the first opening of the pages, and the fountain of which we would have kept for ever flowing, if only that we might be kept in mind of the possibility of the classic use of our tongue in an age of slip-slop and scores of competing mannerisms. No more, over new pages of this inimitable English, shall we follow the humours, the whimsies, the characteristic trains of reflection of that brave, original, knowing, and finely-cultured mind—here provoked to laughter by the wildest farce, there touched in our finer nerves by some sudden stroke of the pensive or the sad, anon almost alarmed at the savageness of the satire, or made to wince at feeling ourselves seen through and our deceptions detected. No more among the pleasures of our more cultured British homes will be that of reading new stories by Thackeray. The round of his creations is complete, and to that wondrous company of imaginary beings, of such marked characters and physiognomies, that sprang from his teeming fancy within the last quarter of a century, and have taken their already familiar places in the vast population of our British world of fiction, no more will now be added. We must go back now, so far as we would have this pleasure from him renewed, upon the novels and miscellanies which he has left us. No more will our critics be able to spin their old disquisition on the points of contrast between the living Dickens and the living Thackeray. Dickens, let us be thankful, still survives among us in the full practice of that rich and marvellous genius in prose-fiction which had won him his national fame before Thackeray's rival powers had been heard of, and the unabated force of which, even after Thackeray's so-called rivalry with him was established, Thackeray was one of the most eager to assert and to admire. But, though this habit of talking of the two as rivals has been carried too far—although the two were not so much rivals as contemporaneous examples of distinct styles of literary art, the existence of both of which in any one time is always to be looked for and always to be desired—yet, one cannot help feeling that, for the moment, by Thackeray's death, the desirable balance is somewhat disturbed. He, among our novelists, was the apostle and representative of Realism as opposed to Romanticism; and it would not be difficult to make out this as one of our many reasons for regretting Thackeray's loss—that to him, more perhaps than to any other popular writer of our generation, may be traced that revival of a wholesome spirit of Realism, of a tendency to keep close to nature and fact, and to bring into fiction a surcharge of actual matter of observation, which has certainly been one of the intellectual phenomena of our time. By Thackeray's death the

balance is a little disturbed, for we have no such masculine master of reality in fiction left to antagonize the tendency to excess in the fantastic. All in all, in Thackeray British Literature has lost a man the precise like of whom had never preceded him and will never again be seen. Thinking of the combination of qualities that existed in him, we may well speak of his as a genius in many respects unique in the entire range of British literary history.

There will be more private and sacred regrets for Thackeray, of which it is hardly possible to speak here. To the peculiar kind-heartedness of the man, despite the apparent cynicism of his writings and the seeming dryness at times of his manner, there is but one testimony from all who really knew him. The anecdotes that one hears of him in this respect—how he would fold up a sovereign or two, put them inside a book, and then wrap the book up in paper and address it, so that, in case he should be out when the expected acquaintance who wanted the little help called for it, his servant might not know the exact purpose of the call, or how again he would enclose a few sovereigns in a pill-box, and leave them with a poor old-lady patient who wanted that kind of medicine most, with the inscription outside “to be taken one at a time”—these anecdotes have all a certain characteristic air of Thackeray. No more will there be these quaint and secret acts of charity by the hand of Thackeray. Many who needed his charity will miss him; and many who needed it not will miss henceforth his generous and hospitable friendship. Nor, while his friends and the world at large feel their own loss, let those two be forgotten who grieve at the hearth in Kensington where he will no more be seen. Let the love and respect that the nation owes to Thackeray descend to Thackeray's daughters.

CURRENT LITERATURE.

LIFE OF THEODORE PARKER.

Life and Correspondence of Theodore Parker, Minister of the Twenty-eighth Congregational Society, Boston. By John Weiss. In Two Volumes. (Longman & Co.)

THE name of Theodore Parker is well known in England in connexion with the two leading features of his life. He was a minister, preaching regular Sunday sermons, and exercising a pastoral charge over a congregation, who more completely denied a supernatural revelation than any one else has done who has cared to retain the name of Christian. And he was one of the most prominent members of the Anti-Slavery party in the United States. Both these characteristics make his biography an interesting one at the present time; and there is no doubt that, apart from them, he was personally a remarkable man.

The course of his life (1810—1860) was singularly even and prosperous. To use his own figurative language, he “swam in clear sweet waters all his days.” He was a grandson of a Captain John Parker, of Lexington, who commanded his townsmen at the first hostile encounter of the Revolution, and the son of a peasant farmer of the same place, whose household seems to have been distinguished by the best New England qualities. Theodore was a student from infancy, and did prodigies of reading and acquisition. At seventeen, he began to teach others, keeping school during the winter, and working with his father during the summer. In 1830 he entered at Harvard College, Cambridge, supporting himself by teaching. When he was serving as an assistant in a school at Boston in 1831, he taught in the school for six or seven hours a day, but “always had from ten to twelve hours a day” for his own private studies besides. He was brought up a Unitarian, and always desired to become a minister. In 1834 he became a member of the Theological School at Cambridge, and in due time was “ordained,” and received the charge of a

village congregation at West Roxbury, near Boston. By degrees his opinions came to diverge strongly from those of the Massachusetts Unitarians, and, having gained some fame as a preacher and lecturer, he was invited to preach to a special congregation in a public hall at Boston. This was his work till he was disabled by the illness of which he died; but he combined with his preaching a great deal of lecturing in the towns and villages of the Northern States and an incredible amount of reading. His chief independent literary work was a translation of De Wette's “Introduction to the Old Testament.”

His prodigious industry is of itself a proof of the force of his character. And it did not at all oppress or exhaust his vitality. Mr. Parker was full of life, no one more so; he was a vigorous thinker, an eloquent declaimer, a very fearless man. He was ambitious, but there is no reason to doubt that his career was guided in the main by what he believed to be right and true. And together with his rough New England force and integrity, there was a gushing vein of sentiment in his character, to which he owed a great part of the success of his preaching. He delighted in what he termed “the affectional.” His friendship for women who admired him had something extremely tender in it. He was fond of children, and of flowers, and of simple domestic ways of life.

Mr. Parker always regarded himself as a scholar and philosopher, and suspected that he was throwing away his talents in giving up so much time to oratory. Nature, he said, had made him a philosopher, but circumstances had turned him into a stump-orator. But this shewed a want of self-knowledge. In truth, the career of a preacher and lecturer was exactly that which best suited him. If we are to call him a stump-orator, it must be with the qualification that he was an honest one, who heartily cared for his cause as well as for the pleasure which he gave. But, with all his enormous reading and the varied knowledge he acquired, Mr. Parker can hardly be called a scholar. His Latin, when we have made the most liberal allowance for misprints, is such as might make the very compositor shudder. His Greek was probably worse. Nor was his intellect that of a philosopher. In disposition and manners Mr. Parker was what we on this side of the Atlantic should call very *pushing*. Wherever he went “he found out the most notable people, made their acquaintance, and drew them into conversation. . . . He used to keep lists of people worth knowing in the various towns where he lectured, and whose acquaintance he meant to cultivate.” In Europe he would go to any distinguished man, and say, “Sir, I am an American, and I have read your books.” When he liked a speech or a book, he would often write to the author as a stranger, to express his admiration. Similarly, his intellect was what we might call a “pushing” intellect. It was audacious, disrespectful, indiscriminating. He had an astonishing capacity for being satisfied with himself, and for despising and vilifying those who did not think as he did. Without being extremely pugnacious, vituperation had a great charm for him. He was never tired of the rhetoric of caricature. He was accustomed to speak of great men and great faiths with consummate—*impudence* is the first word that occurs; but let us say, want of decency and of appreciation. The Sacraments, for example, were constant butts for his pleasantry.

His want of taste was notorious, and his friends contend that his vulgarity was not that of a wholly vulgar nature, but was the result of a certain awkwardness and want of breeding. His humour, which is exuberant, is the most ungainly ever known. In his theological class, he would speak of “Old Paul,” and, when the teacher remonstrated, he would beg pardon and say “the gentleman from Tarsus.” St. Augustine was “a shabby African.” His letters and his journal, into which he emptied his feelings and opinions with the greatest profusion, overflow with vulgar and garrulous good-humour. His

singular pet-name for his wife, “bear,” or “bearsie,” one is sometimes tempted to think, would have suited himself better. The most serious things took a quaint form with him. He thus speaks of his last sermon: “When I turned away from the congregation after the sermon was over, it flashed into me, ‘This is the last time, O Parkie!’” and again, “I could not quite make up my mind to stop till the word came ‘No further, my little dear.’” As a specimen of justness of appreciation, take this on mysticism, from the interesting autobiographical letter to his congregation. “The delicate and refined woman develops the sentiment of religion in her consciousness; surrounded by wealth, and seduced by its charms, she reads the more unpractical parts of the Bible, especially the Johannic writings, the Song of Solomon, and the more sentimental portions of the Psalms; studies Thomas à Kempis, Guyon, Fénelon, William Law, Keble; pores over the mystic meditations of St. Augustine and Bernard; &c., &c. . . . In his *Parc aux Cerfs*, Louis XV. trained his maiden victims to this form of devotion!” The philosopher who could imagine a woman seduced by the charms of wealth to the study of St. John, might also confound Louis XVth.'s catechisings with the mysticism of a Guyon or a Fénelon.

It may seem inconsistent to go on to say that there was a high moral and religious tone in Mr. Parker's discourses; but the inconsistency was in the man himself. With all his apparent irreverence, he was extremely earnest in preaching and acting upon his own convictions. It is almost amusing to see how confidently he believed in his own “little system.” His biographer says that Mr. Parker is beginning to be regarded as a “representative man;” but this can only be in a very narrow sense. He is not *sceptical* enough to represent the general tendency of the modern mind, seeing difficulties in every form of belief, and not at all more disposed to accept a narrow doctrinaire Theism than to acquiesce in the old faith of Christendom. Mr. Parker's intellect was a rhetorical one, and therefore not too ready to see difficulties. The chief experience in his religious history was his discovery of the weakness of the Unitarian position, which he had been brought up to accept. In his day the Unitarians of New England, who had previously been quite occupied in fighting the battle of denial, were asking themselves and being asked by others on what theological ground they were themselves standing; and they found, not without some misgivings and discomfort, that they were resting on mere miracles far more than the Catholic believer. The ultimate faith of a Christian, according to the theological school of Cambridge, was the acknowledgment that certain supernatural works were done by Divine interference so many centuries ago. This faith Mr. Parker entirely cast off, and found himself virtually excommunicated. “The brethren” ceased to “exchange with him.” His position with reference to the sacred writings and the history they record became substantially that of Mr. Emerson or M. Renan. But he differed from the majority of those who reject a special Revelation in clinging to a belief in a personal God, the Guide and Friend and Inspirer of men, and in a conscious immortality. The three chief things he taught were “the infinite perfection of God,” whom he called the Heavenly Mother, as well as the Heavenly Father; “the relative perfection of human nature;” and “natural religion,” or the normal development of the feelings, the ideas, and the actions, of man. The evidence of these truths he found in the instinctive consciousness, and in nature.

There is no doubt much in this doctrine which might commend itself to many minds, and indeed to all pious minds, and Mr. Parker's religious teaching was by no means without practical influence. But this Theism is little likely to satisfy the questionings of the inquiring intellect, or to stamp itself upon the history of human belief. It might have done no harm to Mr. Parker, with his

intense self-complacency, to see his cherished system worried by some metaphysician like Professor Mansel. But the common-sense on which he prided himself would probably have made him tough to such criticism; and it is doubtful whether any distinguished reasoner would think it worth his while to subject *Parkerism* to a formal analysis. As Disraeli has called Sir Robert Peel a great Member of Parliament, so we might designate Mr. Theodore Parker a great Lecturer; and a lecturer is not to be judged as a philosopher. The following criticism, in a letter to Mr. Parker from his friend Mr. Emerson, though more might have been said with truth, is very accurate:—

I find in it [in a book dedicated to Mr. Emerson] all the traits which are making your discourses material to the history of Massachusetts; the realism, the power of local and homely illustration, the courage and vigour of treatment, and the masterly sarcasm—now naked, now veiled—and, I think, with a marked growth in power and coarseness—shall I say?—of statement.

All these gifts found scope in the Anti-Slavery agitation, into which Mr. Parker, in the year (1845) of the annexation of Texas, threw himself heart and soul, and which gave its chief glory to his career. Both with voice and with counsel and with act, he was one of the foremost leaders of the extreme section of the Anti-Slavery party. He was thus brought into relation with Garrison, Wendell Phillips, Captain John Brown, as well as with men like Mr. Sumner and Mr. Chase. He proclaimed the "higher law" as overriding state-enactments with all the enthusiasm of his eager temperament. We are reminded in reading his correspondence that "Unionism" was at that time the object of the scoffs of the Anti-Slavery advocates, who were not only ready but desirous to divide the Union for the sake of resisting the extension of slavery. Their language was, Perish the Union, so that we be no longer accomplices in this crime. Mr. Parker said, in 1856, "I think this is the last presidential election under the constitution. Yet I do not desire the dissolution until we have freed 4,000,000 slaves, though I should vastly prefer a dissolution to the present state of things. But I do not believe that any permanent union is possible between the North and the South. In ideas, aims, and habits of life, there is more unity between the Neapolitans and the Swiss than between the South and the North." On a summons to a convention for the purpose of dissolving the Union, Mr. Parker says, "If you insist on separation, and will make dissolution the basis of agitation, why, I think much good will come of it." And he proceeds to "give a hint as to the line of demarcation between the two nations." But, if he were living now, he would no doubt be as zealous as any of his countrymen for the prosecution of the war, as the means of completely destroying slavery on the American continent—a result which may perhaps be more speedily realized than, before this war, any one ventured to hope.

This biography has been composed under the directions of Mrs. Parker, and with the aid of all the papers in her possession. It contains only too much of Mr. Parker's correspondence and of the varied matter comprised in his journals. The volumes are very full, and there is much in them which, to speak most mildly, was not worth printing. But the editor has selected what he has given out of a prodigious quantity of MS., including verse which, to judge from some specimens, must be singularly bad. The editor's own observations are often clever, but are written in a strained Emersonian style which savours of affectation.

J. L. D.

THE INTERRUPTED WEDDING.

The Interrupted Wedding. A Hungarian Tale. By the Author of "Mary Powell," &c. (Griffith and Farran.)

IN the "Interrupted Wedding" the author of that pretty book, "Mary Powell," employs on the Hungarian rising in 1848

her vivid power of throwing herself into scenes different from the present. There is less of story whereon to hang the graphic incidents described than in those books in which the manners of our own forefathers are illustrated. The feelings which goaded the peasants and nobles to war are shown in the conversation at the castle and at the village wine-shop, and the misery of such war by the sufferings which the persons of the story experience during it. The peasant is for a long time separated from his newly-married wife, made prisoner, wounded and left for dead in his attempt to escape, and returns to find his cottage burnt, his mother fled, the noble who was improving the condition of those on his estate killed; yet such is his spirit of resistance to the Austrian rule that he employs himself in driving provision carts for the army as long as the war lasts, being unfit for active service from his wound. The noble loses his life for the cause, fighting against his former friends and comrades; and his sister, who in mistaken heroism joined the ranks, also shares the same fate. This is the story; but the interest of the work does not lie in the story, but in the pictures, the incidents, which this tale serves to string together. We feel ourselves in an unknown land, so different are the habits of the Magyars from ours, their impulsive minds partaking of the fire of the East. We recur to the time when this heroism was shown in that repulse of the Turks which turned the tide of conquest and set Christendom for ever free from danger of their attacks. Here are one and all roused to resist the infraction of their ancient constitution. The men haste to the fight, the women encourage them—nay, themselves here and there join the ranks; and why? The feelings of the multitude are thus expressed:—

"The Constitution has been despised." "It has! it has!" "We will maintain it." "We will! we will!" "Kossuth is the man for us. Eljen Kossuth!" "What does all this mean?" said Paul to a man who was dining at the same table. The man shrugged his shoulders and said, "It means war, I think. The French Revolution has been like fire set to dry grass; and now it has reached us. Our foolish king is not the man to put it out. Instead of quieting matters, he has written to our Palatine that we have no right to a ministry of our own—our money, army, and our frontier guard must henceforth be given up to Austria." "And are we going to put up with that?" "Not if we can help it."

Thus they are lighted up; the very dwarf joins the army, and does good service on horseback, returning wounded and crippled, but rejoicing that he was a partaker in the glorious resistance. To turn to the other side, how pathetic is the scene of Wildenheim finding the dead body of the Countess, who, forgetting "that woman should save life, not take it away," had joined the army as a hussar, and was killed in a skirmish.

Just as she was, in her grey dolmany and crimson cap with its glistening heron's plume, her light Turkish sabre at her side, her hands crossed on her bosom, her face composed as if in slumber, with a sweet inexpressible smile on her lips, they carefully wrapped her in a large clean blanket, and, at daybreak, reverently deposited her in the grave. Wildenheim, within a few days, had thus lost the two persons dearest to his affections and imagination, both ranged against him in this fratricidal war.

It is curious at the present time, when the name of Kossuth has almost disappeared from public ken, to recur to his character as it appeared to contemporaries and countrymen.

"Wherein lies the spell by which this Kossuth of yours wins all hearts?" "Mainly in his integrity," said Count Matthias, "though he is felt to possess commanding genius. But genius alone won't carry the day! In the long run there must be goodness too. Kossuth's race has not long begun, but, from the opening of his career, when he used to report the debates, which were circulated in manuscript all over Hungary, we felt what was in him. His eloquence combines reasoning and feeling. Travel from one end of the country to the other, and you will find but one feeling about him! In the lowliest hut on the Puszta, as in

populous towns, the feeling is just the same. Should it even not please God to grant his efforts success, the peasant would still bless his name."

There are also characteristic touches of the Ban Jellachich, the harsh iron soldier, led by the blandishments of the court, and of Görgei, whose defection from the popular cause and surrender of his forces were the death-blow to the power of resistance.

There is a certain air about many of the incidents which prepares us for the author's postscript and notes, giving her authorities for all her chief events and personages. Yet the feeling on passing from the story to these notes and postscript is like that experienced on turning to portraits from imaginative pictures, however good they may be. No one could read without this feeling the history of the Jew Bar Simon, who cast aside the Testament presented to him with scorn, and, opening it afterwards, without recognising it, at the Sermon on the Mount, was so captivated by it that it became his favourite study. To take his own account:—

At that time I despised it, afterwards I read it, was converted and healed. It was within me as a burning fire; at the last I spake with my tongue. On the Sabbath it fell to me to expound the portion of Isaiah that had been read. I said: "This day is this Gospel fulfilled in your ears. Be it known unto you that by Jesus Christ of Nazareth, who was crucified, must other men be saved. There is no salvation in any other." At this word they cried out: "Cast him out! for it is not fit that such a fellow should live!"

The book is one to be read with great interest, all the more from its assisting to fix in our minds events of our own day, so readily forgotten from not yet having passed into standard history.

THE VALUE OF POPULAR NAMES.

On the Popular Names of British Plants. Being an Explanation of the Origin and Meaning of the Names of our Indigenous and most commonly Cultivated Species. By R. C. A. Prior, M.D. (Williams and Norgate.)

WE are glad to perceive that Dr. Prior, the able translator of the ancient Danish ballads, is persevering in his efforts to elucidate the origin, drift, and meaning of the names of our British plants, intimately connected as these names are with so much that an Englishman holds dear. They are closely interwoven with a set of ideas rooted in the daily life, songs, traditions, and history of the nation, and no amount of reasoning will ever convince the millions in whose mind they are safely stored, surrounded by all the poetry of fact and fiction, that they must give place to others devised according to the rules of certain modern theories. It would, no doubt, be convenient if the time-honoured names of our animals and plants were binominal and always coincided with the limits of the genera modern science has adopted. But, when it is remembered that the limits of many genera are so ill-defined, and their position in the natural system so unsettled, that the plant which to-day is regarded as an oak may to-morrow be looked upon as a chestnut, or the animal which the present generation believe to be a man may after all turn out to be a monkey, we may, perhaps, congratulate ourselves that we have some name to hold on by until doctors have ceased to disagree. The attempts to set these names aside can only lead to confusion. To substitute others in their place must utterly fail, because they are part and parcel of our language, and, in many instances, of so ancient a date that we can prove them to have been in use long before our ancestors left the cradle of their race in Central Asia. Their toughness, if we may use the term, is of such a description that they have survived all the changes and vicissitudes to which our language has been subject; and they are on that account justly regarded as amongst the most venerable and important living records of our primitive history. They give us an insight into the habits of life and mode of thought of our progenitors, the value of which can scarcely be overrated, and they

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throw a flood of light upon their migration and history that promises, when fairly worked out in connexion with other facts, to yield a rich harvest to those who make the study of man the object of their investigations.

The most interesting of the names that have come down to us are those which date from a period antecedent to the settlement of the German race in England, names which are deducible from Anglo-Saxon roots, and identical, with allowance for dialectic peculiarities, in all the High and Low German and Scandinavian languages, and, what is particularly worthy of our attention, each of them expressive of some distinct meaning. These will prove—what with many readers is a fact ascertained upon other evidence, such as the contents of sepulchral mounds, traditionary laws, and various parallel researches—that the tribes which descended upon Britain had entered Europe not as a set of savages, or wandering pastoral tribes, or mere pirates and warriors, but as colonists, who, rude as they may have been in dress and manners, yet, in essential points, were already a civilized people. It will be seen at the same time that they must have come from a colder country; for while these names comprehend the Oak, Beech, Birch, Hawthorn, and Sloe, trees that extend far into Northern Asia, they do not comprise the Elm, Chesnut, Maple, Walnut, Sycamore, Holly, or any evergreen, except of the fir tribe, or Plum, Pear, Peach, or Cherry, or any other fruit-tree, except the Apple. For all these latter they adopted Latin names, a proof that, at the time when they first came into contact with the Roman provincials on the Lower Rhine, they were not the settled inhabitants of the country they were then occupying, but foreigners newly arrived there as colonists or conquerors from a country where those trees were unknown. . . . The migration, being one that proceeded from constantly acting causes, extended over many centuries. Let us lay aside all prepossessions, and inquire what light is thrown by the following vocabulary upon the real state of the Germanic tribes at that period. In these mere names, setting aside all other sources of information, we discover that these people came from their home in the East with a knowledge of letters, and the useful metals, and with nearly all the domestic animals; that they cultivated oats, barley, wheat, rye, and beans; built houses of timber, and thatched them; and—what is important, as showing that their pasture and arable land was intermixed, and acknowledged as private property—they hedged their fields and fenced their gardens. Cæsar denies this; but the frontier tribes, with whom he was acquainted, were living under certain peculiar Mark laws, and were, in fact, little else than an army on its march. The unquestionably native, and not Latin or Celtic, origin of such names as Beech and Hawthorn, of Oats and Wheat, prove that, although our ancestors may have been indebted to the provincials of the empire for their fruit trees, and some other luxuries, for a knowledge of the fine arts, and the Latin literature, and a debased Christianity, the more essential acquirements upon which their prosperity and progress as a nation depended were already in their possession. Like the scattered lights that a traveller from the wilderness sees here and there in a town that lies shrouded in the darkness of night in a valley beneath him, and the occasional indistinct and solitary voice of some domestic animal that for a moment breaks the silence, these distant echoes of the past, these specks that glimmer from its obscurity, faint as they are, and few and far between, assure us that we are contemplating a scene of human industry, and peace, and civilization.

When we read of “a scene of human industry, of peace, and civilization,” we naturally demand the proofs of the assertion; and Dr. Prior has furnished us with many. Perhaps the most interesting are that our ancestors had herds and cultivated the ground, and, what is still more important, they surrounded their fields with living fences, hedges, or haws—proving that they must have remained sufficiently long in one place to make such fences useful, and that they were unlike some wild tribes of the present day, who select a fresh plot of ground almost every year, because they have no regular system of agriculture, do not keep domestic animals, and can consequently do nothing towards preventing the soil from becoming exhausted. The name “hawthorn,” the thorn of haws, hays, or hedges—in Anglo-Saxon *hagaðorn*, *haeg*, or *hegeðorn*; in German

hagedorn—is therefore “an interesting word, as being a testimony to the use of hedges, and the appropriation of plots of land from a very early period in the history of the Germanic races.” What domestic animals accompanied this state of civilization we learn from the author’s explanation of the word “Cow-bane” (*Cicuta virosa*), an herb supposed to have an injurious effect upon cattle.

Cow, a word adopted from a very ancient Asiatic dialect, and nearly the same in Sanskrit, Zend, Persian, the Germanic, and the Slavonian languages, and even the Chinese—an agreement in name that makes it probable that this animal has been dispersed over the civilized world from one centre. This we are justified in placing in a country whence our fruit trees and cerealia have been obtained, and all the essentials of our civilization—a country to the north-west of India. The Lat. *vacca*, Skr. *vaska*, refers to the use of the cow as a beast of draught or burden, and is connected with *veho*, Skr. *vah*. It deserves remark as a curious circumstance that none of the names for a cow in any of the Indo-European languages have reference to its yielding milk, although “daughter,” a word that is essentially the same in a great many of them, means “milker.” This may justify our inferring that kine were not kept in the primeval family for milking, but for draught or burden, and that the goat was the animal which the daughter tended; as indeed the constant allusions to goat-milking in the idyllic poems of antiquity would lead us to suppose, and still more the circumstance that the Lat. *vacca* is evidently derived from the Skr. *vah*, *vehere*, transport, and nearly identical with Skr. *vāha vāhya*, a beast of draught or burden, applied equally to a horse. It is a curious illustration of the importance attached to this animal, that the Skr. *go-pa* means a cow-herd and a prince—wealth and power having been estimated by the amount of a man’s wealth in cattle, a term that must date from the period when the Brahminic race led a pastoral life in Central Asia.

All of us will have observed how the smooth bark of the beech has tempted boys to cut their name or initials on it; but few will be aware that this much-condemned practice was at a remote period the origin of writing and of books. Dr. Prior gives the following about the tree, from the abundance of which in one of our counties the name of Buckinghamshire arose:—

Beech, Anglo-Sax. *boc*, *bece*, *beoce*, Old High Germ. *puocha*, Middle High Germ. *buoche*, Germ. *buch*, Du. *beuk*, Old Norse *beyki*, Da. *bøg*, Sw. *bok*, words which, in their several dialects, mean, with difference of gender only, a book and a beech-tree, from Runic tablets, the books of our ancestors, having been made of this wood. The origin of the word is identical with that of the Sanskrit *bókó*, letter, *bókós*, writings; and this correspondence of the Indian with our own is interesting as evidence of two things—viz., that the Brahmins had the art of writing before they detached themselves from the common stock of the Indo-European race in Upper Asia, and that we and other Germans have received alphabetic signs from the East by a northern route, and not from the Mediterranean. For, if we had learnt the signs from the Greeks or Romans, we should have adopted their names for a book, and for writing materials, as the Celtic nations have done. On the other hand, in the Greek word *βιβλος*, the name of an Egyptian plant, we see, independently of history, that book-writing was introduced among the Greeks as a foreign art, and that they had left the parent stock before its invention. The German term *buch-stab*, a beech-stave, is still retained in the sense of a letter, the tree and its wood having in the northern nations taken their name from their use in writing. Tacitus certainly says, “*Literarum secreta viri pariter ac femine ignorant.*” De Mor. Germ. c. 19. The eastern origin of this word is, however, an unquestionable evidence that they not only did know letters then, but must have known them from the time that they separated from the Indian branch of our common family. It is to be remarked that the Greek word *βιβλος* and the Latin *liber* meant primarily the material, and only in a secondary sense a book; while our *beech* means primarily the book, and only in a secondary sense a tree. The word *write*, Anglo-Sax. *writan*, like the Greek *γραφειν*, and the Latin *scribere*, dates from a time when letters were scratched, and not painted or penned, and is an additional evidence that the art was not of Roman introduction, or we should

have had some derivative of *scribere* to denote it. Beech was the wood of which Runic almanacs were made, several of which are still preserved.

The general belief is that in the fourth century Ulphilas constructed the Gothic alphabet on the basis of the Greek; but Dr. Prior’s hypothesis, that we received alphabetic signs from the East by a northern route, and not by the Mediterranean, would seem to be confirmed, as an ingenious critic has well remarked, by a couple of lines in Ovid’s Thirteenth Epistle of the Fourth Book, “*Ex Ponto*”—

“*Ah pudet! et Getico scripsi sermone libellum,*”

and

“*Hæc ubi non patria perlegi scripta Camena.*”

It is not at all probable that Ovid undertook the difficult task of adapting the Roman characters, merely for his own use, to the Gothic language in which he wrote his panegyric on Augustus; and we have thus more than presumptive evidence of the existence of Gothic writing at a much earlier period than that in which Ulphilas lived.

Dr. Prior does not consider his inquiry into the origin and meaning of the popular names as terminated; and one of the chief reasons which induced him to publish the present work was to obtain from others more satisfactory explanations of those terms which have baffled every attempt to discover their meaning. Some of the words have as yet not been traced far enough—for instance, tobacco, tomato, and potato. It must be possible to say more of the meaning of tobacco than that it is “a name adopted by the Spaniards from the American Indians.” Tomato, which is explained as being the “American-Indian name” of the plant bearing it, is of Aztec origin (*Tomatl*), and can be made out from Mexican dictionaries. Potato is a corruption of the Spanish word *batata*, which originally belonged to the sweet potato or edible convolvulus; but the meaning of *batata* has not yet been discovered. We also observe the omission of “yeast,” though that production (*Hormiscium cerevisie*), without which we could make neither bread, wine, nor beer, is as much a British plant as the tang, with which, at a remote period, when tiles and thatch had not yet been invented, the roofs of our houses were covered. Respecting “bean,” Dutch *boon*, German *bohne*, we would remind Dr. Prior that the Arabic name for coffee-bean is “*bunn*,” and that we probably received both the bean and its name by way of the Mediterranean.

We have but touched on a few of the many interesting topics which the author’s labours have brought before us. His philological knowledge, together with his intimate acquaintance with botany, both matured by extensive travels in all parts of the world, have enabled him to take a wider range in these inquiries than any one who has preceded him. His “*Popular Names of British Plants*” will be the standard work on the subject, and clear up much of the confusion at present prevailing in our dictionaries. We should advise the author to add an index to his contemplated second edition, as some practical difficulty arises from the present arrangement when a person who knows only the scientific name of a plant and not the popular cannot possibly find the heading under which it may have been placed unless he looks through the whole volume.

TWO NOVELS.

A Page from the Peerage. By the Author of “*The Colonel*.” Two Volumes. (Newby.)

Strong-Hand; or, the Noble Revenge. A Tale of the Disinherited. By Gustave Aimard. Two Volumes. (Maxwell & Co.)

THE two works which form the subject of our present notice are, in every respect, wide as the poles asunder; and we have made them “embrace, as it were, from the ends of opposed winds.” In the first we wander with hushed footfall through Belgravian saloons, and bask in the smiles of patrician beauty. Our cherished heterodoxies are dispelled by

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most unconvincing arguments from most convincing lips; and lords of Norman blood and High Church principles condescend to direct our morals or refine our tastes. When, with a sigh of weariness, we close these aristocratic volumes, and turn to those less pretentious that we have associated with them—hey, presto! as with a conjuror's wand the scene is changed. In place of lounging in "trim gardens" or "proud alcoves," we wander through the illimitable prairie, listening beneath its deep mellow moonlight to the myriad voices of beast, bird, and insect, which alone break its charmed solitude. In place of baronial halls and their lordly occupants, we have the Mexican *rancho*, with its debauched and blood-thirsty crew of border ruffians; and, in place of fashionable scandal, gently lisped in the boudoir, we have ghastly oaths crashing round the gambling-table. In "A Page from the Peerage," unless a slight election squabble is to be dignified with the name, we have nothing in the shape of adventure; while in "Strong-Hand" we have a half-dozen lives sacrificed in the first chapter. Let not the reader hastily surmise from this parallel that we should give a verdict in favour of the Indian romance even on the score of interest; as, after a careful perusal of both works, we are inclined to say with Nerissa, in the "Merchant of Venice"—"For aught that I see, they are as sick that surfeit with too much as they that starve with too little." Nay, we believe that, upon the whole, the records of adventure in the one are even duller than the sententious moralizings in the other.

"A Page from the Peerage" is ushered into the world with a short but truculent preface directed against sensation-literature, which is denounced as "the blasting lava of writings that familiarize the mind with crime." The aim of our author is different, and different the class of readers he courts. He is thankful to think that

There are still gentle spirits who turn from pictures of crime and passion, and covet for their leisure the luxury of cutting the unread pages of some simple narrative, temptingly evolved with a clear type on hot-pressed paper; and who, shrinking from the eye-toll offered by the small print and thin paper of the shilling volume, take the two and three-volume novel of our first publishers, as the indulgence permitted to position, with iced-wine, "silk attire," the opera-box, and similar enjoyments.

To readers whose *position* does not render it indispensable that their wine or *beer* should be iced, whose costume is more habitually "cloth of frieze" than "cloth of gold" or silk attire, and who have to indulge their love for the divine melodies of Mozart, or the silver-tongued voice of Patti, by an occasional seat in the pit instead of a perpetual box on the first tier, this book clearly does not appeal. We feel a little timidity, therefore, in venturing to review it. Our verdict upon it is, nevertheless, by no means entirely unfavourable. It has a plot, distinct though meagre; the author at times gives proof of possessing considerable powers of observation; and the language in descriptive passages is occasionally easy and flowing. The dread of becoming "sensational," has obviously dwelt like a nightmare upon the author: the proprieties are constantly before his eyes, till we say with Christopher Sly, "'Tis a very excellent piece of work, Madam Lady; would 'twere done.'" The plot may be briefly epitomized thus. A young and semi-idiotic Duke of Merioncourt has, while travelling abroad with his tutor, formed a violent attachment to a Swiss girl, whom he has privately married. He is, however, separated from her immediately afterwards; she is spirited away; and he supposes her to be dead. A coast-guard officer of the name of Campbell, living in the same neighbourhood as the duke, has also married a Swiss, who has been governess in several families of distinction. The duke, by chance, meets with Mrs. Campbell, and, learning that she is of Swiss extraction, he offers to be godfather to her infant daughter. This proposal is of course accepted, and, at the solicitation of the august sponsor, the name Katinka, which is that of his lost wife,

is given to the child. Some years after the duke dies, having bequeathed the whole of his disposable property to his godchild.

Behold our heroine at the outset of her career possessed of no ordinary advantages; endowed with all personal graces, and inheritor of a ducal income. Nor is this all. She has received at the hands of her mother a model education, the results of which are contemplated by the latter with unmingled satisfaction. "Added to much graceful accomplishment, imparted to her daughter, there was a correct judgment of art and science, and a refined taste in their productions (!); and, above all, she saw in her much contentment, high religious principle, and an acute sense of the proprieties of life."

In the last clause of the above sentence we have the clue to the character of Katinka Campbell; and, lest she should ever lose this exalted knowledge, we have the mother constantly at her side whispering words of counsel such as the following:—"In my opinion a woman who is anxious to become a wife before she has seen any one who has pleased her, or has shown that it is his desire to please, steps down from the pedestal of good-breeding and good-feeling." After her accession to wealth the fortunate heiress does not stand much in need of this advice, every one she meets proving it to be "his desire to please," and several succeeding in pleasing. "Charlie Carleton" is an old lover, his passion dating from before the inheritance; he is now, of course, out of the question, and is speedily and most properly dismissed. Mr. Duffryn, the late duke's lawyer, brings her the first news of her newly-acquired possessions, and temporarily conducts her affairs. Being first in the field, he is not without hope of securing her hand before she fully learns its value; Katinka is, however, in no hurry to make her selection. There is a certain Mr. Tregaron Cassilis, whose bust she has seen and admired, and, as he is heir-at-law to the late Duke of Merioncourt, she conceives the romantic idea of restoring to him the estates of which she has deprived him, should he be willing, as there is no reasonable cause to doubt, to accept them at her hands with herself as their pleasing and only encumbrance. At the close of the first volume it seems probable that this desirable arrangement will take place; but, unfortunately, Mr. Cassilis, who has been for some years a resident in Germany, whence he is summoned in hot haste by his family to wed the heiress, has become lax in his theological opinions. As soon as our heroine discovers this flaw she dismisses him with a lecture which we should think would induce the bravest to pause ere he gave the fair censor an opportunity of rendering the infliction frequent and legitimate. To recover her spirits after this sacrifice at the shrine of orthodoxy, Katinka goes to spend a few weeks in the country with her friend Lady Llanore. The occupations she indulges in are those indigenous to the country house—namely, love-making and pic-nic-ing; there is, however, a slight episode of electioneering. Lady Llanore is a warm and sincere friend to the young heiress, and has a brother, Lord St. Oduoald, who is destined to supply the void which the absence of Cassilis has occasioned in her heart. The world of fashion, it is true, has voted Lord St. Oduoald "a dreadful prig," in which aristocratic definition it is not improbable that the reader will coincide; but Katinka has looked deeper than the world, and has traced in him "a shade of such utter sadness, such hopeless hapless melancholy, that affection was stirred by the very power of the vague pity which he excited." He proposes and is accepted, though we fear that it is more in order to console his blighted heart that she accepts him than from any strong affection she entertains. The man whom most of all she admires she has only met by chance; and, though he realizes her fullest conception of the truly noble, yet, as he is only the steward or bailiff of her noble host, her admirably-regulated mind never dreams of looking upon him with any feeling stronger

than an interest which it is scarcely possible for her to check. But, while love-making has been occupying her whole time, evil days have been drawing on, and a storm has been brewing. The will of the late duke is contested, and, on the grounds of his mental incapacity, is set aside, her property reverting to her late lover Tregaron Cassilis. All her fortunes thus dissipated, and with a heavy burden of debt, our poor heroine, heiress no longer, may learn a lesson on the mutability of fortune, and on the wisdom of making hay while the sun shines. Her behaviour beneath this infliction shows the force of her character. She releases her noble lover from his promise; but he is more effectually released by death. She then endeavours strenuously to repair her drooping fortunes, and finds, though wealth has left her, that beauty and accomplishments constitute in themselves a dowry. Her old lovers almost all renew their former offers, and Tregaron Cassilis, enriched with her spoils and with his doctrinal errors all removed, again implores her to share his fortunes. But her reverses have taught her to know her own heart, and she is obliged to confess that she loves another—Mr. Carew, the steward before alluded to. By chance he finds her out in London; and she soon discovers that the affection she entertains for him is reciprocated. He proposes and is accepted, and at this moment Lord Llanore comes in "pat, like the catastrophe of the old comedy," and informs her that her spring of the marriage of the late duke, from supposedly obscure suitor is, in fact, the off-whom she obtained her briefly held possessions, with the Swiss wife from whom she has inherited her name. Wedded, then, to the man of her choice—rich, happy, and a duchess, we take our farewell of Katinka, and leave our readers to imagine the domestic felicity which can hardly fail to be her lot.

That we may give some idea of the style of the author at its best, and with it afford a glimpse into his conception of character, we give the description of the new-found Duke of Merioncourt's virtues, as seen and proved by our heroine:—

He was perfect, as they had seen him. Perfect in temper, thought, and mind—perfect in discrimination and decision—perfect in good sense and in frank simplicity—perfect in ideas, strict as those of a Puritan—perfect in indulgent toleration—perfect in the most enlightened views of the great things of man as connected with his Creator—perfect in the hoarding up and appreciation of all the minor marvels of creation—perfect in symmetry and strength of form—perfect in mild and gentle manners. And, as this perfection from day to day had dawned upon her, sealing itself indelibly on her mind, had she detected no alloy—no counteraction of his bright qualities by the evil ones, which at times tread so closely on the heels of virtues? Brought up, as he had told them, with people of an ordinary grade; associated with those employed in the realization of income; looking upon uneducated and low-minded men as his equals; subsisting on the results of his own labours; was there nothing sordid in his views—nothing which placed money on an undue elevation, to the depression of the nobler aims of life—nothing which would substitute craft for intellect—impunity for honour? Had she not traced out subserviency where courtesy alone was required—self-sufficiency where self-confidence was wanting? Had she not, in short, some suspicion that, deluded by the external charms of manly beauty and good address, she had given credit for these surpassing merits to one who, after all, was merely a good-looking well-mannered functionary in her friend's employ? No, it was not so. No alloy—no "falling off" was to be detected. She had scrutinized deeply—she had weighed words—she had sifted sentiments—she had used to the utmost her cynical powers in judging of his mind and manner. Her experience of the world had furnished her with the power of making comparisons; and still the impression left was tantamount to the exclamation of her mother—"That man is perfect!"

M. Gustave Aimard's novel, "Strong-Hand," calls for, and, in fact, permits of, little criticism. M. Aimard has resided for many years among the scenes and characters he attempts to describe—has, we believe, been adopted by a tribe of In-

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dians—and is, therefore, entitled to a hearing upon all questions of Indian character and customs; but, as a writer of fiction, he is utterly destitute of power. The present may be accepted as a fair sample of the interminable series of novels which he pours forth. It has scarcely a plot, and absolutely no interest. Character after character passes over the stage—ladies, lovers, soldiers, spies, murderers—and are all dismissed without a shadow of anxiety for their subsequent fate arising in our minds. The foulest murders are committed, and our pulse gives not one throb the more. Scene after scene of Mexican life is introduced. We believe that the colours are true, but feel that the hand which has laid them on has no cunning; and we close the volume with a sense that a hopeless and irredeemable dullness hangs over the whole. This much praise, however, we may accord—the translation is considerably better than has been the case in any previous work of this series which we have seen.

OUR DOCKYARDS.

Dockyard Economy and Naval Power. By P. Barry. (Sampson Low & Co.)

ALTHOUGH we are eminently an insular and seafaring people—although, to use the language of Thomas Campbell, our “march is o’er the mountain wave,” our “home is on the deep,” yet it is astonishing how little we know of the progress of ship-building and navigation among ourselves, or among our nearest neighbours and greatest rivals. Not only the great mass of the British public, but many of our members of Parliament, are ignorant as to the extent, number, and cost of our dockyards, and as to the state, prospects, and progress of our navy. Though several tolerable naval histories have been published since the reign of George II., yet it is a singular and unaccountable fact that there has been no serious, well-executed history of the rise and progress of our dockyards published in London, nor, as far as we are aware, is there anything like a handbook or guide-book to our great national arsenals.

It was therefore with eagerness, not unminged with hope, that we looked for the appearance of the work at present before us. Here at length, we said to ourselves, is a long-sought desideratum about to be supplied—here, at least, we are sure to find collected together, and under one head, matter which is scattered over hundreds of volumes and no end of blue-books.

We regret to say we have been grievously disappointed. This is not a history of our dockyards and arsenals, nor a comparative view of the immense establishments of the great maritime nations, but it is a volume full of the theories, opinions, speculations, and crudities of a gentleman who describes himself as “a newspaper-writer making a clean breast of it,” whatever that may mean. Mr. P. Barry, it appears, according to his own account, “during the past three years has filled, and still fills, the position of naval writer on the staff of a morning paper, writing on the manning of the navy, ordnance, fortifications, the construction and equipment of ships of war, the claims of the officers and seamen of the mercantile marine, the position of the officers of the Royal Navy, &c.” These duties Mr. Barry may perform, for aught we know to the contrary, very satisfactorily; but the qualities of mind required for their performance are not precisely those to which we should entrust the discussion of the grave, imperial, and momentous life-and-death question whether we should or should not have dockyards, whether we should not discharge at once our shipwrights, commissioners, rear-admiral and captain-superintendents, our master-attendants, our master-shipwrights, chief and assistant engineers, storekeepers, clerks of the works, and the thousands of ship-carpenters, caulkers, draughtsmen, artificers, and workmen who are and have been for centuries employed at Deptford, Sheerness, Devonport, Woolwich, and Chatham. Such is the

sweeping suggestion which Mr. P. Barry makes. The whole tenor of his spasmodically-written book, if it means anything at all, means this—that the government of the greatest maritime nation in the world should give up at once their great national establishments, should give up, for the future, building of wooden ships, and build only of iron, trusting to private establishments at Lambeth, Milwall, Cubitt Town, and elsewhere for the fulfilment of contracts.

The author of “Dockyard Economy and Naval Power” doubtless considers that the practice which he thus recommends has never heretofore prevailed in England. But he may, if he will take the trouble of reading and informing himself, learn that, antecedently to the reign of Henry VII., not only did we trust to private individuals for the building of our ships and galleys, but, moreover, these individuals were frequently foreigners—Italians, Spaniards, and even Frenchmen. The result of thus rendering the Royal Navy of the country and the defence of the realm tributary to private enterprise was then deplorable. Our coasts were frequently ravaged; the property of our merchants and traders was destroyed, and the realm was never for a year secure against invasion. Henry VII., a wise and politic prince, whose long residence in Brittany had given him an opportunity of acquiring greater skill in maritime affairs than any of his predecessors, was the first to remedy this evil. He caused the Royal Marine, which till then had been built here, there, and everywhere, to be constructed according to an organized system, and in the midst of profound peace he always kept a fleet ready to act. Though obliged to hire many ships exclusive of those built by the State, yet he was, according to Camden, the king who created the first ship of the Royal Navy, the *Great Harry*, which was burnt by accident in 1553.

One of the chief claims of Henry VIII. on the gratitude of Englishmen is that he laid the foundation and settled the construction of the navy. An admiralty and a navy-office were then constituted, commissioners were appointed, regular salaries were settled, and the sea-service became a distinct and regular profession. In 1515 Henry built a famous ship at Erith, and named her the *Henry Grace de Dieu*; and, three years afterwards, according to Pepys, he possessed twenty-one ships and vessels. There was then formed a great storehouse at Erith, and to this and to the laws which Henry made for the planting and preservation of timber, and the foundation of Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth Dockyards, and the foundation of Trinity House, is mainly owing that predominance in naval power which the country has ever since maintained. In former reigns, and in earlier periods, England was obliged to hire shipwrights and ships from Hamburg, Lubeck, Dantzic, Genoa, and Venice; but, though Henry VIII. made use of Italian shipwrights, yet he made them, by liberal encouragement, settle in England, to teach his own people how to build strong ships of war to carry great ordnance. Elizabeth increased the good work commenced by her father. The navy was her peculiar care. She directed a most exact survey to be made of it. She issued orders for preserving timber fit for ship-building, caused her magazines to be filled with stores, and ordered many pieces of brass and iron cannon to be cast. The queen also augmented the salaries of her naval officers, raised the wages of her seamen, and drew over foreigners skilled in the art of navigation and ship-building to settle in England, and instruct her people. Elizabeth also caused a fortress to be built on the river, called Upnor; and, in order to show the personal interest she took in the navy, went, on the 3rd July, 1559, to Woolwich, to the launching of a new ship to be called the *Elizabeth*. There was no sovereign ever on the throne of these realms more prudent in the outlay of money than Elizabeth; yet in 1589, in order to augment her maritime force, her Majesty

settled a part of her revenue for the ordinary supply of the navy, amounting to about £9000 a year.

Probably a less warlike and a more peaceable sovereign was never on the throne than James I.; yet he expended £50,000 annually on our dockyards, exclusive of timber from the royal forests to the amount of £36,000 per annum.* Lord Bacon applauds this expenditure and amassing of stores, and it was considered politic and proper by so able and accomplished a man as Sir Walter Raleigh. But it is not alone the royalists and kings of former times that may be invoked in opposition to Mr. P. Barry’s vehement protests against the great accumulation of stores. The Protector Cromwell was so sensible of the respect paid by foreign states to the naval power of this country that, instead of reducing his navy at the conclusion of the war in 1654, he ordered all the ships to be repaired and put into good condition. He also ordered new ones to be built, and filled the storehouses and magazines with all the necessaries for a fleet, as if it had been a time of the greatest danger. So far from being, like Mr. P. Barry, against the accumulation of stores, Cromwell caused the timber on the royal domains to be cut down for the use of the navy. The Protector procured an annual grant of £400,000 for the expense of the navy, which at his death, in 1658, consisted of double the number of ships existing at the commencement of the Civil War. The old and new commissioners of the navy in 1686, under the auspices of a sailor-king, James II., were also strenuous in heaping up materials for the service of the navy, as may be seen from the reports of Lord Falkland and Sir J. Narborough. Timber, hemp, pitch, tar, rosin, canvas, iron, and oil were accumulated in immense quantities.

From 1688 to 1863 this system has been continued in the ports, arsenals, and dockyards of every maritime nation in the world; and it is not likely, we think, that any minister or civilized country will abandon the practice even at the bidding of a gentleman filling the office of “naval writer on the staff of the *Herald* and *Standard*.” At all events, the question will need a great deal of discussion in other quarters first. At all times, from the reign of Henry VII. downwards, private builders have been occasionally employed, and the system of contract has been also resorted to; but this is a widely different thing from making it the rule instead of the exception.

The French navy, like our own, has been raised from a humble condition to its present efficient and powerful state by the creation of those *ports militaires* which Mr. P. Barry would sweep away. It was in the year 1627 that the great minister Richelieu obtained from his sovereign the permission to build ships. He established arsenals and foundries at Brouage, Marseilles, and Havre-de-Grâce; and he had an opportunity of seeing, in 1635, the progress which his country made by encouraging government dockyards, or what are called *ports militaires*. Colbert did nearly as much for the French navy as Richelieu. Fifteen or sixteen ships was the amount of the squadron in the expedition to Gigeri, some of them built in foreign countries and some of them hired. But Colbert changed this system, caused native hemp and iron to be manufactured, and made Rochefort, Brest, Toulon, Dunkirk, and Havre great dockyards and arsenals. These measures produced so wonderful an effect that in 1762 Louis was enabled to send thirty ships of the line to join the fleet of Charles II. against the Dutch, commanded by De Ruyter. Twenty years later France had at her command 2500 naval officers and 97,000 sailors†. With these facts staring Frenchmen in the face, any naval reformer who recommended any government whatever in France to abolish its dockyards would run a great risk of being

* Report of Commissioners of Land Revenue, 1792.

† Anquetil, tom. xxii.

‡ Mémoires sur la Marine, par Malouet.

Against the carpenters and shipwrights of our dockyards Mr. P. Barry is strongly vituperative. But, if he had consulted Pepys's "Miscellanies" or "Naval Minutes," he would know that, for more than three centuries, the carpenters and shipwrights have been highly-educated and instructed men. By the Lord Admiral's warrant, dated the 25th April, 1638, carpenters were not to be appointed to ships until they had been examined and licensed at Shipwrights' Hall;* and we learn from "Naval Minutes," preserved also by Pepys, "that the Shipwrights' Hall did anciently view and approve of the draught of the ships that were to be built for the king, and survey them in the building." In Stowe's "Annals," continued by Howes, we learn that, so far back as 1608, "the great workmaster in building the *Prince Royal* was Mr. Phineas Pett, Master of Arts in Emanuel College, Cambridge." Among the Harleian MSS. in the British Museum there is an autobiography of Mr. Pett, from which we learn that he graduated at Cambridge before he served his apprenticeship in Deptford, and that he was appointed master-shipwright in Woolwich yard in 1605. He was made assistant-commissioner of the navy in 1630; and, after this period, commissioners Baker and Bright, master-shipwrights subsequent to Pett, were men of the same mental calibre. From 1612 to 1863 no man has been appointed master-shipwright in any one of our yards who has not possessed scientific attainments. Peake, the son of a commissioner and the brother of an admiral and a post-captain, is, as well as Fincham, a man of high scientific attainments; and the Laines, the Reads, the Chalfields, the Edges, the Moodys, the Turners, the Langs, the Cradocks, the Edwardses, and the Saunderses of our time may vie with the Sir Anthony Deanes, the Shisks, the Johnsons, the St. Mitchells of 1665, and the Hookers, the Sisons, the Seppings, the Diddams, and the Tuckers of half a century ago, or the best shipwrights of France, Sweden, or even of Spain in her palmiest days, when she built such vessels as the *San Josef*. Two centuries and a half ago, three and four generations of men of the same family succeeded each other in the office of shipwrights in our own government yards, and the same practice obtains to the present day, not merely in England, but in France and Holland. Thus, Peter Pett succeeded his father Phineas Pett, and the families of Boat, Peak, and Fincham have been for generations favourably known in our dockyards.

Mr. P. Barry dissertates on the proper form of ships, and tells us (p. 123) that, the less we hear of naval architecture, and of schools of naval architecture, the more it will be to our credit, for the day of master-shipwrights is gone by. But in this no man whose opinion is worth a rush will agree with him. The best form for a ship, whether the vessel be of wood or iron, was described more than eighteen hundred years ago by Seneca, and the description has not been improved upon since his day. "Navis bona," says the philosopher, "est stabilis et firma et juncturis aquam claudentibus spissa, ad ferendum incursum maris solida, gubernaculo parens, velox et consentiens vento." Stability and solidity we still seek as earnestly as well-closed timbers or well-riveted iron to resist the impulsion of the waves. We also seek, as much even as 2000 years ago, a vessel which readily obeys the helm or the screw, which carries her sails proudly, cleaving with swiftness through the surging billows. Such a vessel may once in a way be constructed by a happy chance. But it is in ship-building as in writing:

"True ease in writing comes from art, not chance,
As those move easiest who have learned to dance;"

and he is the best ship-builder who applies the greatest amount of science, skill, practice, and experience to the task. Ship-

wrights by profession who have studied the works of Chapman, the great Swede, and the English, French, and Dutch treatises on the subject, and who, after having attained competent mathematical knowledge, have served their apprenticeships in a great dockyard, are more likely than laymen to give a ship such an exterior form as may be most suitable to the service for which she is designed. As an inexpensive plan of placing the dockyards on a war-footing, Mr. Barry recommends the turning of our convicts bodily into the dockyards. But he ought to know that, over and over again, the French convicts have attempted to set fire to the French dockyards. One is not surprised that a gentleman recommending a measure such as this proclaims London outstripped by Marseilles.

A. V. K.

SIX VOLUMES OF POEMS.

Orpah's Return, and other Poems. By Walter Alfred Hills. (Hardwicke.)

Winter Weavings. Poems by Isabella Law. (Smith, Elder, & Co.)

Imagine; or, The Flowers and Fruits of Rome. A Metrical Tale. By M. H. (Wertheim, Macintosh, and Hunt.)

Poems. By B. H. Farquhar, author of "The Pearl of Days," "Real Religion," &c. (Pitman.)

Poems of an Interval. By Alfred Saxelby West. (Macintosh.)

The Pleasures of Early Life, and other Poems. With Illustrative Notes. (Glasgow.)

SEVERAL small volumes of verse lie on our table claiming a word or two of notice. The author of "Orpah's Return, and other Poems," imitates Mr. Browning, and is, as usual, more successful in reproducing the asperity than the weight and matter of his original. How awkward he can be, let these lines testify, extracted from a long poem in similar taste:—

Then the crown'd king gasped quick with a
strange fear:
But king he is, and bound
By oath, his court around,
How can he make a pause?
If only he were private!—but because
Of all his lords most principal,
To wit Quintillus, Claudus, and Shobal,
Ananus, and Antigonus, and John—
Ha! what is he dreaming on?
Ha! there is no room for doubt!
Decide it all by speaking out!

But Mr. Hills is capable of better things, and, though we cannot rate his poetical faculty very highly, it is impossible to refuse our sympathy to the lofty and noble spirit which frequently animates his verse. The following is a good passage from his best piece:—

High on the grassy limit of a range
Of hills I lay; upon mine ear, behind,
The shore-waves of a boundless forest broke;—
But, looking past the myriad tints of green
Breathed on sweet slope, rich field, or sylvan
knoll
Beneath my feet, I saw my native land,
England,—no other name, no county name
Or names, were worthy of that spacious plain—
Array'd in all the hues a happy eye
Could dwell on, dower'd unremittingly
With motion and emotion, as it were,
By looks of love from out of Heaven, that used
Large sunlight and the ever-moving cloud
As ministers.

Equally commendable, but quite dissimilar in the spirit they display, are "Winter Weavings." Miss Law is a pretty but not strong echo of Miss Procter, to whom her book is dedicated. Her verses are replete with kindness and amiability; to read them is easy, to remember them impossible. She prattles pleasantly on, and generally to something like this effect:—

Hast thou found in some hid corner
Of thy heart to-day,
Something fair which time has faded?
Keep it; let it stay.
Be it some poor withered flower
Lying there in vain;
Let thy tears fall warm upon it,
It will live again.

Be it some forgotten treasure
Crumbled into clay;
Once it bless'd thy morn and even,
Cast it not away.

"Imagine; or, the Flowers and Fruits of Rome: a Metrical Tale," may be described as an anti-Romanist novel of the usual stamp, indited in blank verse under the extraordinary delusion that it would be thereby rendered more palatable to juvenile readers. Of the style of the verse the following is a specimen:—

In the youthful heart,
'Tis seldom long ere other objects fill
The place the loved and lost once occupied.
And Piercy Allan, though awhile he spent
His leisure hours in mournful solitude,
At length grew weary of a hermit's life;
And, urged by friendship, was prevailed upon
To join its social circle once again.
And, ere two fleeting years had past away,
The loved Matilda had begun to seem
The bright inhabitant of realms removed
Far distant from the sympathies of earth;
And, sooth to say, his thoughts were now engrossed
By fair Dolores, whom he often saw
Amid those festive scenes where pleasure
reigns,
In which the young and gay delight to meet,
And where she moved with animated grace.
Full many an envious eye and ear had marked
His fond attentions to the maiden paid,
And her soft blush and captivating smile,—
(For she was beautiful as summer's rose.)
Nor was it long before that winning smile
To Piercy Allan's suit approval gave.
But to her dreaded father she referred
Her lover, though with half-misgiving heart.

"Poems," by B. H. Farquhar, is a little collection of pious, gentle, and kindly thoughts, which gain perhaps little by the metrical garb with which the authoress has chosen to invest them. Here are one or two stanzas from a poem entitled "Creeds":—

Not now, not now; oh lay it by!
I do not care to see
The reasons either for the New
Or Old Theology.
I strive to live the life of God
In earnest, loving deed;
I have no time to cast a thought
To-day on any creed.
Let Christless Christians settle now
Those questions of the brain;
Love calls aloud for ready hands,
And must not call in vain.
Untended youth—neglected age—
Call for the heart's fond care;
Where Labour sinks beneath his load,
The Lord stands pleading there.
Here, take my hand, as I take yours,
For, by the love-mark seen,
I know, within the inner shrine,
With Jesus you have been.

"Poems of an Interval," by Alfred Saxelby West, really display some poetical spirit; but, though the writer acknowledges two previous publications, he seems to be still a novice in the art of composition. He can, however, write with sweetness and feeling, as in these lines:—

Where are the friends I prized of yore—
Bright circle of my youthful days?
All scattered now! and I no more
Beside them tread those pleasant ways.
Bright circle! yea, for one dear gem
Among that group conspicuous shone;
And for her sake I think of them,
And would remember every one.
Some grow estranged and keep away,
And others cross the trackless sea;
New faces crowd life's stage to-day,
And but their names are left to me.
So, like the apparel of the bali,
Bright though youth's glittering diadem be,
All fancy's fleeting gems soon fall,
And leave the world's bare truth to me.
Yet would I fain that cluster wear
In memory still my heart beside;
At least let that one gem be there,
Though all its lustre long since died.
Gleam on awhile, youth's sunset ray!
Her image on my soul I'll see;
And I'll recall those friends to-day
Whom Time's chill stream hath swept from me.

* Pepys's "Miscellanies," vol. 6, pp. 580.

"The Pleasures of Early Life, and other Poems," would have graced the albums of the writer and his friends, but will hardly succeed in enlisting the sympathies of a more extensive circle.

ANALOGY AS A GUIDE TO TRUTH.

Analogy, considered as a Guide to Truth, and applied as an Aid to Faith. By James Buchanan, D.D., LL.D., Professor of Systematic Theology, New College, Edinburgh, &c., &c. (Edinburgh: Johnstone, Hunter, & Co.; London: Hamilton, Adams, & Co.)

THIS portly volume is an affluent to the vast stream of apologetic literature which, taking its rise in the anti-Essays-and-Reviews agitation, and swelled by the tributary waters which have descended to overwhelm the Bishop of Natal, has risen during the last three years to an alarming height. As the volume is not directly addressed against any individual school of heresy, it escapes much that is offensive in this class of literature, though at the cost, no doubt, of losing some force. The author has really read the books he intends to confute; and, if he has not always understood them (as in the case of Mr. Maurice's criticism of Butler he certainly has not), it is not for want of an honest desire to do so. He answers argument with argument, and not with sneers or hard words. This will not seem to those who will recall the specimens of controversy with which they are most familiar such faint praise as it looks at first sight; and the author's wide reading and frequent quotation direct us to many vistas of interest. But, when we come to weigh his own contribution to our mental treasury, we reluctantly confess that the 600 pages are too much. He has treated Butler as another great man was treated long ago. Plutarch tells us that the opponents of Caius Gracchus having promised that whoever should bring his severed head should receive its weight in gold, the successful claimant, to enhance his reward, took out the brains and replaced them with lead before producing his ghastly prize. It is with the best intentions that Dr. Buchanan performs a similar operation on his forerunner. However, a treatise of this nature is not to be set aside because it does not afford lively reading; and we must confess that the sceptics, against whose doctrines the greater part of the volume is directed, will be at least silenced in their illogical objections. The chapter in which the Rationalists are to be convinced begins, "It is assumed that there are two volumes before us, the volume of Nature and the volume of Revelation, and that our interpretation of the one is, and should be, in some respects, analogous to our interpretation of the other" (p. 439). The Rationalists who admit that a text from the Bible is to have the same authority in theology as a fact of nature in science, form a sect which we never remember to have seen or heard of; but we congratulate Dr. Buchanan on the easy task of confuting them.

No one who has ever entered into the spirit of Butler's great work will disparage without regret the attempt of any disciple of his. We should not, indeed, be able to join in the admiring reverence which led Sir James Mackintosh to describe the "Analogy" as "the most original and profound work extant in any language on the Philosophy of Religion," if, like Mr. Henry Rogers and Dr. Buchanan, we regarded it as his especial merit that he has demonstrated the logical untenableness of every position between Atheism and Christianity. It is possible to describe his work in those words; but every one who has really studied it will feel that its aim and spirit are entirely lost in using them. Butler's treatise is essentially practical; the lumbering style, which his warmest admirer has regretted as a veil concealing from us deep and noble thought, is, in fact, its most fitting garment. "I am not careful about my theory," he seems to say in the numerous parentheses, modifications, perhaps, which make the "Analogy" such difficult reading; "I want to make sure that I have brought forward the actual facts,

and nothing more. I find the reality modified, broken, scattered, as it were. I do not pretend to bring more coherence than I find." The moment that his cautious and tiresome barriers are destroyed, and the rough-hewn rock removed to a portion of a neat building, his profound and incontestable conclusions become shallow and commonplace. "See," he is often supposed to say, "you complain of the difficulties of revelation; you accept Nature as the work of God. For every hole you can pick in the one, I can find a like flaw in the other. Therefore you are inconsistent unless you accept neither or both as God's doing." The difference of the whole spirit of his book from this shallow and flippant deduction is not easily put into a few words; but that reverence for Nature which is practically thrown aside by the modern adoption is the very essence of his argument. "You complain of difficulties in revealed religion," he says, addressing a class perhaps more common than now. "It is true, they are very numerous. Are they not mirrored in Nature itself, as the bank in the windless pool? Does not such an accurate correspondence furnish the strongest proof that the nature of the case admits of—that both together form one complete whole, due to the same author and regulated by the same laws?"

To the larger class of difficulties in what Butler meant by Revealed Religion, his is the only answer. The smooth and sheltered civilization in which most of us pass our lives tends to hide from us all the difficulties which we have surmounted in believing in a righteous Author of the scheme in which we find ourselves; but any one who has gone thus far may be shown, not that his position is untenable unless he goes backwards or forwards—we are confident that was not Butler's intention—but that he has accepted the first term of an Analogy, in the strict sense. Here is scope for reasoning—here is the only scope for it. But the application of the principle, which is based on a common conviction, to implant that conviction is utterly futile. Indeed, it appears to us worse than futile, not only because it associates the subject of such an attempt with its own weakness, but because it forcibly suggests the very difficulties which it attempts to explain. How vain, to a mind overcome by the effect of the hopeless spectacle of moral injury, to urge that this difficulty is not exceeded by the sins of the fathers being visited upon the children! Or, to a spirit thirsting for an ideal of perfection, to suggest the resemblance to some faulty human machine in the universe to which it turns as an escape from the pettiness and imperfection of all human contrivances!

No one can investigate the laws of Nature with an unprejudiced mind and deny that we can trace something in them which it is no metaphor to call an aim. The relation of the flower to the seed could not be described in any other language. But what we are convinced would be denied by all who entered on the study of Nature unshackled by a foregone conclusion, is that these aims, or final causes, formed any revelation of character. Of course we do not mean that the Bridgewater Treatises are a collection of entertaining fiction; we may find these instances if we look for them, but they do not express the impression which remains on the mind of any student of Nature who has not been anxious to contribute to Natural Theology. The strong sense of a contrary inference has extorted expressions of half-perplexed regret from writers who were not bound or inclined to form any opinion on the subject whatever. "Why this mechanism is attended by so much evil," says Sir Charles Lyell, in his chapter on Earthquakes, "is a mystery far beyond the reach of our philosophy, and must probably remain so until we are permitted to investigate, not our planet alone and its inhabitants, but other parts of the moral and material universe with which they may be connected." Let us hear how such events impress a child from one who was distinguished in after-life, as Mr. M. Arnold tells us, by his aversion to that

doctrine of final causes which was thus early tested.

"When I was six years old," says Goethe, "the earthquake of Lisbon spread a panic terror through the whole world, furnishing ample material for the reflections of the devout, the consolations of philosophers, and the sermons of the clergy. Meantime, the child often listened to discussions on the subject, which stirred in his soul a lively trouble. God, the creator and preserver of heaven and earth, whom the first article of his creed represented as so wise and so good, had showed himself very unlike a father, confusing in the same ruin the just and the unjust. The young heart struggled in vain against these impressions; it was not possible to resist them, since sages and doctors themselves could not agree in what manner to regard this catastrophe."

It does not need an earthquake which destroyed a capital to puzzle sages and doctors, who derive their belief in God from "analogy and final causes," which Dr. Buchanan, quoting Butler, supposes the first storey of the ladder from earth to heaven, but which we are very sure was no foundation of Butler's own faith in God. The simplest facts of every day, if they could but claim our attention as novelties, would startle us from the belief that it is from Nature that we have derived our notion of a character which can to us be an object of reverence or love.

We have been trying to contrast Butler's own method, pursued with Butler's limitations, with that same method when it has transgressed those limits—when the river, overflowing its banks, has become a swamp. The one reasoner sees the place for reason, discerning the accepted truth, which lies hid and sterile in a system of thought where it is not recognised. The other, imagining that in watering the soil he will supply the absent seed, not only fails in his object, but, in spending so much toil in vain, seems to demonstrate the incapacity of the soil for developing the germ, which in reality has never been implanted in its bosom. It is in this latter point of view that Butler's argument must have been regarded by those writers who have regarded it as possessing a sceptical tendency. No argument has a sceptical tendency which rests on mere unquestionable facts. Some time or other, the testimony of beneficent contrivance must be weighed against that of a contrary nature (since no one, we presume, would say that such an event as the earthquake of Lisbon was dependent on the will of God in any other sense than the fall of a shower of rain), and if in this crisis we are to judge of the author of the universe from "analogy and final causes," we have some doubts on which side the balance might incline. But, supposing them erroneous, what we are sure of is, that this inference from conflicting evidence has no title to be called certainty. It might give rise to a strong opinion—knowledge could never spring from it. Opinion approaches certainty as the spiral approaches the centre; the distance between the point and the curve may diminish for ever, but can never vanish. Is this the relation of Faith to Knowledge?

An anecdote which may not be new to some of our readers, as we have heard it from more quarters than one, appears to us so apposite in illustrating this distinction between extreme probability and certainty that we proceed to give it. A. B. was taken to a collection of coins for the purpose of inspecting a particular specimen believed to be unique. The work of Greek or Roman art was taken from its case, and handed to A. B., who spent some time in the examination, and showed his knowledge of numismatics, we may presume, in the discussion which followed. After a time the curator wished to restore it to its locked case, but it was nowhere to be found. We may imagine the long, anxious, uncomfortable hunt, the slow dawning of suspicion, the many would-be careless suggestions to the connoisseur to search his pockets, lest a fit of absence should have transferred the coin to their recesses, before the overwhelming force of circumstances extorted from those who were answer-

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able for the safety of the treasure the plain assertion—"We must search you if you refuse to give us this proof of your innocence." At this point the guardian of the museum feels a strong suspicion of the guilt of A. B.; but his demeanour under this threat confirms this suspicion into something which can hardly be distinguished from certainty. Instead of the proud submission to the unpleasant ceremony which we might expect from an innocent man, he declares that only the extremity of physical necessity shall force him to undergo it, and expresses so vehement a resolution to make this as hard as possible, that, before calling in the aid of the constable, one last desperate search is made in every possible corner; and, lo! the treasure is found. We may imagine the indignation which mingles with relief in the minds of those forced into such ungraceful collision with a friend. "How could you withhold such a simple proof as we demanded of you? Why would you whet our doubts with such a guilt-like demeanour?" The visitor, for all answer, puts his hand into his pocket and withdraws from it a facsimile of the very coin which on good authority was believed to be the only specimen now extant in the world.

Now let us suppose that the second search had been as fruitless as the first—it is not impossible—and that the apparently missing coin had been found on the person of A. B., would it have been possible to conceive a link strengthened in this chain of evidence which proved a fiction? Could opinion have possibly been stronger than that which would have stamped A. B. as a thief? In other words, is there a possibly stronger opinion than that which may be false?

This is the kind of opinion which rests on the strongest evidence, and which we have compared to the approach which a particular curve makes to a point which it can never reach; and this is at best the result of the argument from Analogy. Is there no other kind of conviction? We cannot refrain from indicting the kind of knowledge which, whether or not it may be supposed to have any analogy in what Butler calls "revealed religion," every one would acknowledge to have its place in the "constitution and course of nature." Let each one of us substitute for A. B. the name of the one who is best known to him and most honoured by him—father, teacher, or friend (it is plain the incident might have happened to any one)—and let our hypothetical conclusion to the anecdote be conceived unchanged. The jury would have one view of the case, the son or friend would have another. Which would be knowledge—the conviction founded on evidence, or the conviction founded on faith? The son shall know nothing of the duplicate coin in his father's pocket; he has no refutation of the inference to offer to his own mind or that of others. Yet he *knows* it to be untrue. No one in such a case would object. "This conception of your father's honour, which stands between you and the conviction of other unprejudiced men, cannot be ascribed to analogous reasoning from certain actions of his and certain feelings in your mind, which is more likely to be wrong than the reasoning which has satisfied us in a contrary inference." The jurymen would see that his opinion differed from the son's view of the case, not in substance only, but in form; that the conclusion drawn from argument was divided from the certainty of direct perception, not in kind, but in degree; that between the two, as there was no common ground, so there could be no place for argument; and that the decision of each, moving, as it were, in a different plane, could never properly collide with that of the other. The juror may look on the son's certainty as the delusion of a filial partiality, but does not suppose that, if he had only more evidence, he could shake it. The son may regard the verdict as utterly false, and yet see that it was the only one which an honest juror could give upon the evidence. But, we repeat, in conclusion, one decision is opinion, and one is knowledge, because it is also Faith.

On the Arcus Senilis, or Fatty Degeneration of the Cornea. By Edwin Canton, F.R.C.S., President of the Medical Society of London, &c. (Hardwicke. Pp. 228.)—THERE are but few medical works of which it can be said that they are interesting alike to the professional and non-professional reader. Here, however, is one which, at the same time that it offers to the faculty a valuable monograph on a subject hitherto not sufficiently regarded in connexion with pathology, may be read with both pleasure and profit by any layman as well. The "Arcus Senilis," of which Mr. Canton treats, is that phenomenon usually observable in the eyes of aged persons, in the form of an elliptical zone round the cornea. In its growth it is more or less gradual. "As a common rule, it is not until about the age of fifty that this sign of accumulating years begins to be formed, and from that period it continues steadily to increase in opacity, definition, and extent." The manner of its growth is as follows:—"Two arches are formed in each eye—an upper and a lower one—having their concavities opposed to each other. They are situated close to the line of junction of the cornea with the sclerotic, but between them and the edge of the latter tunic, there is left a fine curvilinear interspace of cornea retaining its transparency, and through which the iris is distinctly visible. Gradually, the extremities of the two arches become prolonged, and eventually they meet and coalesce, so as to enclose an elliptical space of clear cornea." The colour of the Arcus is thus described by Laurence:—"It is at first bluish-white, and the opacity slight; it becomes more dense and chalky-white; at last the loss of transparency is complete, and the effected circle is a yellowish or grayish-white; the tint being deeper towards the circumference and gradually shaded off towards the centre of the cornea." Although frequently observed by previous medical writers, Mr. Canton was the first who, by careful dissection and microscopical investigation, demonstrated the real nature of the "Arcus Senilis" as a substance produced by fatty degeneration of the cornea. This he did some twelve years ago, in a series of papers in the *Lancet*, in which he also showed that the appearance designated as "Arcus Senilis," while sometimes not discernible in very old persons with good constitutions, is frequently seen in persons of middle age, and even much younger, whose constitutions have been impaired by disease. Moreover, from a variety of observations, both then made and since continued and going on, in the course of an extensive practice, he has arrived at this important conclusion—that, simultaneously with this fatty degeneration in the cornea of the eye, there is frequently to be noticed a fatty degeneration either in the heart, liver, kidneys, muscles, arteries, or other parts of the human frame. When he first announced this in the *Lancet*, his examinations, he tells us, were confined chiefly to the aged subject; "but extended experience soon and abundantly proved that, even in comparatively early life, a corneal arch, when symmetrically and largely developed, might in many cases be looked upon as affording an additional symptom wherefrom to suspect a similar form of morbid change being, not improbably, in progress within the body." The researches of other authors—as Drs. Todd and C. J. B. Williams, Mr. Barlow, Mr. Paget, &c.—have tended very much to confirm Mr. Canton in this opinion. Mr. Paget, indeed, fully endorses the conclusion of our author in the following terms:—"The Arcus seems to be, on the whole, the best indication which has yet been found of proneness to an extensive or general fatty degeneration of the tissues. It is not, indeed, an infallible sign thereof: for there are cases in which it exists with clear evidence of vigour in the nutrition of the rest of the body; and there are others in which its early occurrence is due to defective nutrition consequent on purely local causes, such as inflammatory affections of the choroid or other parts of the eye; but, allowing for such exceptions, it appears to be the surest, as well as the most visible sign and measure of those primary degenerations which it has been the chief object of my two last lectures to describe." Mr. Barlow's testimony is to the same effect:—"The Arcus is the only indisputable external sign of true fatty degeneration; and, carefully interpreted, will be found, in many different circumstances, a clue to the destruction proceeding within." In the diagnosis of disease, then, the importance of such a discovery as this, the credit of which is, we understand, due to Mr. Canton, cannot be over-rated. Even in some life-

offices the presence or absence of an "Arcus Senilis," in persons whose lives are proposed for assurance, has come to be a subject of inquiry from the medical referee, in such terms as these:—"If an arcus round the cornea?" "If slight or well-marked?" Let us add that numerous cases of the "Arcus Senilis," observed either by Mr. Canton himself, or communicated to him, are reported in this volume. These will prove more particularly interesting to the medical reader; while the remarks upon old age, and the examples of aged persons that came under our author's own notice, will amply repay the perusal of every one. The account given of James Coleman, an aged man with whom Mr. Canton became acquainted when the former was in his hundred and second year, and who lived on into his hundred and fourth, is most noticeable, and deserves a prominent place in the annals of longevity.

German Grammar, Past and Present. An Inaugural Address delivered on October 6, 1863, at King's College, London, by Dr. Buchheim, Professor of the German Language and Literature in King's College, London. (Bell and Daldy.)—THIS lecture contains an interesting and clever sketch of the various stages through which the German grammar has passed. Dr. Buchheim divides its history into three periods: the *empirical*, when a necessarily futile attempt was made to adapt the language to the forms and rules of Latin—this period lasted from the Reformation to the year 1819; the *historical*, which lasted from 1819 to 1827; and the *philosophical*, which is still in force. It would, however, be more correct to say that the system that now finds most favour is a combination of the two last, according to which the language is taught in a manner consistent with its genius and historical formation. "It is this combination of two sound rational systems which constitutes German grammar as it is taught at present in Germany," and Dr. Buchheim promises himself considerable advantages from its adoption in England. German, as we know from sad experience, was acquired with great difficulty under the old system, and, if Dr. Buchheim can facilitate the study—and his hopes seem reasonable—he has our best wishes.

The Gentlewoman. By the Author of "Dinners and Dinner Parties." (Chapman and Hall; x—118 pp.)—THE object of this little book is to foster a love for the knowledge of household management in young ladies, the daughters of men of moderate incomes. It inculcates the necessity of that knowledge being imparted early, in preference to the so-called accomplishments of the boarding-school. Willing as we are to admit the truth that "the way to a man's heart often lies through his stomach," we must protest against such sweeping vituperation as this:—"In the beginning of the present century the middle-class dames exchanged their good and lasting dress for Manchester finery; they ceased to save dowries for their children, spent the money in tawdry, and turned their daughters into May-day queens. The health of their families they committed to hirelings coming from workhouses, penitentiaries, and brickfields; the money spent in tawdry went to create the fortunes of the lucky, enormously rich manufacturers, who now possess the estates of many of our oldest members of the aristocracy." A writer who sets out as the reformer of an abuse should at least understand the subject, and not confound the sources of the material prosperity of the country, in the way this farrago does, with the extravagance of a class. There is no reason, too, why teetotal principles should be brought to bear upon the study of music in the way the author does in the following sentence:—"On the abandonment of domestic duty," runs on the next paragraph to that just quoted, "came the useless piano, which robbed girls of their time, but enabled carpenters to realise fabulous gains; two makers that died within the last three years left fortunes exceeding in the aggregate those left by nine of our bishops." This same acrid spirit pervades all the introductory portion of the book; but, when the author passes the Rubicon and gets fairly down into the kitchen, where Psyche, the writer's *nom de plume*, is evidently at home, it contains most valuable and useful instruction, such as cannot fail to be useful to ladies, who, without being their own cooks, still desire to possess that amount of culinary knowledge which will enable them to tell a servant how to prepare and dress food as it should be, and to pronounce it properly done or not when served at table. On this account the book may be safely recommended to mistresses of families as a desirable addition to the store-room shelves.

Christian Sanctity. Four Sermons preached before the University of Cambridge in November, 1863. By James Russell Woodford, M.A., Pem-

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broke College, Vicar of Kempford, and Chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Oxford. (Cambridge and London: Macmillan & Co. Pp. 96.)—"THE Nature of Christian Sanctity," "The Christian Teacher," "Indifference," and "The King of Saints" are the respective titles of these sermons; and, from the care which has been bestowed upon their preparation, one cannot but be pleased that such a "course" has been published. The following quotation not only illustrates the style of Mr. Woodford, but brings prominently forward an idea which we are too apt to let slip and forget altogether. The discourse is "The Christian Teacher," and our author is showing why the Christian Faith was born and cradled in the East:—"Truth, clothed in the colder language and exemplified in the less demonstrative manners of the Western races, would, humanly speaking, never have commended itself to the more ardent and imaginative Eastern mind. Here, perhaps, may be found one reason of the comparative failure of missionary enterprise now in those regions. When souls are to be aroused, and deep mysteries imparted, the East comes down with greater force upon the West, than the West by the very conformation of its character can exert upon the East. It is far easier for us to adapt by a process of subtraction the burning words of penitence and praise, as we read them in the Psalms, to our sedate feelings, than for an Oriental to quicken our more measured speech into an adequate expression of the fire which glows in his soul. We account it, then, to be one of God's most signal providences that the birthplace of the Gospel should have been not Europe but Asia."

Hamlet: Tragédie in 5 Actes de W. Shakespeare. Traduite en vers Français par Le Chevalier de Châtelain. (Roland.)—A CURIOUS feeling comes over an Englishman when he sees his Shakespeare's free blank verse led up to perform in the fetters of French rhyme. "What will he do with it?" is the question that rises to his lips as the manager makes his bow; and the performance must be very good indeed not to elicit from the audience an occasional "By Jove! do you call that Shakespeare?" Now we are not going to say what exclamations this present translation of Shakespeare's greatest work has made us utter, and we shall not answer the query, "What has he—the translator—done with it?" but we shall just give our readers three specimens of the "charging parts," and let them judge for themselves. Horatio's

"What art thou, that usurp'st this time of night,
Together with that fair and warlike form
In which the majesty of buried Denmark
Did sometimes march?"

appears as

"Quel est-tu? toi dont la froide audace
Viens usurper ici la forme du feu roi,
Et jeter dans les cœurs et le trouble et l'effroi?"

Hamlet's

"O that this too, too solid flesh would melt,
Thaw, and resolve itself into a dew!"

is given as

"Pourquoi cette chair si solide
Ne peut-elle se fondre, et, devenant liquide,
Se dissoudre en rosée?"

and the quotation that Mr. Ruskin gives as showing the penetrative power of Shakespeare's imagination, giving the essence of life—"Here hung those lips that I have kissed I know not how oft. Where be your gibes now? your gambols? your songs? your flashes of merriment that were wont to set the table on a roar? Not one now to mock your own jeering? quite chaf-fallen?"—is translated "Ici étaient attachées ses lèvres que j'ai baisées, je ne sais combien de fois. Où sont maintenant vos gaufferies? vos saillies? vos chansons et ces éclairs de gaieté qui électrisaient tous les convives d'une table? Vous n'avez plus un mot maintenant pour vos moquer de vos propres grimaces; vos pauvres lèvres sont absentes!"

Anti-Colenso: an Essay toward Biblical Interpretation. A Hand-Book for Thinkers. By Johannes Laicus. (Hamilton, Adams, & Co.)—If any one wants to be set against this book let him read the preface. Upon the writer's soul when he is meditating this work are impressed these words: "'Forward, forward!' We apprehend this voice—gentle as the summer breeze, yet potent as the electric shaft—as possibly an accommodated [i] echo of that high command, given on a grand historical occasion, to him who instrumentally conducted the sublime march of the Exode, the words of which were these: 'Speak unto the children of Israel, that they go forward.'" And, as God divided the sea, and let the Israelites pass, so, in effect, says the writer, did he tear himself ruthlessly from his dear native home and country, and produce this book. Surely this is either absurd vanity or great nonsense. The writer knows no Hebrew, and surely no Geology;

but he has sense enough to see that he cannot meet the outspoken Bishop on his own ground of numbers, and so he says: "Our argument, while sedulously and distinctly aiming to grasp the principles upon which he proceeds, . . . will not descend to those minute and often revolting details of a puerile scepticism, in the dark shadows of which the divine heroism of this great drama of the ages is hopelessly and inextricably confounded." There is, however, some thought in the book, but a good deal more pompous writing than thought; the sentences are awkward; and of the grammar here is one specimen—"there is introduced by name two persons, namely, Hezron and Hamul."

Replies to the First and Second Parts of the Right Reverend the Bishop of Natal's "Pentateuch and Book of Joshua Critically Examined." By Franke Parker, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, and Rector of Luffingcott, Devon. (London: Bell and Daldy; Exeter: Wm. Clifford. Pp. 373.)—A VERY temperate and able argument against Bishop Colenso's views, fairly conducted, without presumption or contemptuousness, presenting a very pleasant contrast to the tone of Johannes Laicus. The specialty of the book is its comparison of Scripture passages to ascertain in what sense the words in any questioned passage are used. Thus, from the number of the *first-borns*, which is stated in Numbers iii. 43 to be 22,273, Kurz and the Bishop deduce the fact that there can have been only one first-born to 44 males; or, in other words, the number of boys in every family must have been forty-four. In answer to this, Mr. Parker brings together nine passages from the Old Testament, showing that by the first-born is meant the first-born among children only, excluding those among adults; and, as this interpretation makes sense of the passage, while that of the German commentator and the Bishop make nonsense, he rightly argues that his version is the one to be accepted by all fair-minded critics. We have no doubt that these Replies will prove of use to the enquirer into the matters touched by the Colenso controversy.

ALMANACS AND POCKET-BOOKS published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge:—1. "The Churchman's Almanack for 1864," printed as a double-demy broadside, and embellished with a view of St. David's Cathedral, contains most useful information for Churchmen. Copies of this almanac are also issued mounted on canvas, with roller; 2. *The Same*, forming 36 pages 12mo., with the additions, consisting of various useful lists; 3. *The Same*, interleaved and bound, with gilt edges; 4. *The Same*, omitting the larger lists, the size of a pocket-book; 5. *The Same*, interleaved and bound with gilt edges; 6. *The Same*, interleaved and bound in morocco, with tuck and pockets; 7. *The Same*, with Diary, and the same lists as are given with No. 4, bound in morocco, with tuck and pockets; 8. "The Cottager's Almanack for 1864," with elegant woodcut head-pieces, with account of the months, instructive paragraphs, maxims, useful lists, &c., interleaved; 9. "The Cottager's Penny Almanack for 1864," the same as the last, omitting the tables, and not interleaved; 10. "The Children's Almanack for 1864;" also, *The Same*, with coloured frontispiece.—All these almanacs are carefully compiled, and may be safely recommended. Besides these, the Society has published "The Churchman's Remembrancer for 1864"—a most useful diary for the table.

Silvia's Lovers. By Mrs. Gaskell. Illustrated Edition. (Smith, Elder, & Co., viii—499 pp.) The illustrations consist of four plates, besides the engraved title-page.—THIS cheap reissue of Mrs. Gaskell's clever novel, full of true poetry of thought and feeling, will be welcomed by a very large class of readers. It is one of those books which one likes to take down and read a second time, more slowly than at first, pondering, whilst reading, the high purpose which the writer had in view, and which is so admirably worked out.

The Ages of Human Life. The Seven Ages of Man described by William Shakespeare, depicted by Robert Smirke. (L. Booth, 23 pp.)—HERE are Smirke's seven plates, which illustrate "The Seven Ages," from the large Shakespeare Gallery, published by Alderman Boydell, reduced by means of photography to four inches by three, with the Droeshout portrait and the Stratford bust, and the appropriate words from Shakespeare, in quaint Elizabethan binding, forming a pretty little book to lie on a drawing-room table, or to be a present to one's lady-love.

John Baptist; being a Course of Advent Lectures. By Hilkiash Bedford Hall, B.C.L., Afternoon Lecturer of the Parish Church, Halifax. (London: Bell and Daldy; Halifax: Whitley and Booth. Pp. 63.)—THESE lectures are five in

number, and entitled "The Elias that should Come," "The Greatness of John Baptist," "The Character of John Baptist," "The Preaching of John Baptist," and "Behold the Lamb of God." They are simple and edifying.

The Life of Jesus: a Fact not a Fiction. A Response to M. Renan's "Vie de Jésus." By J. A. Gage, author of "Wise Counsels for the Tried in Spirit," "Essays on Manly Duties," &c. (Tresidder. Pp. 92.)—MR. J. A. GAGE has evidently written this pamphlet in good faith and from the most conscientious motives, but he indulges in a style so inflated and wordy—so tremendously epithetic, in short—that one loses all patience with him, and what logic the book may possess is, on this account, lost.

Parables from Nature. Fourth Series. By Mrs. Alfred Gatty, author of "Aunt Judy's Tales," &c. (Bell and Daldy. Pp. 173.)—THE parables in this little volume which please us most are those entitled "Birds in the Nest," "Kicking," "The Light of Life," "Gifts," and "Night and Day." There is a fine poetic appreciation in everything Mrs. Gatty says, and, as soon as one has read one of her "Parables from Nature," one ceases to wonder at her popularity.

A Chronological Digest of English History, drawn from the best and most recent Sources, and designed for the use of Students. By Frederic Arvolappen, of Bishop's College, Calcutta. (Madras: Gantz Brothers. Pp. 88.)—THE compiler—a native Indian, we presume,—has been very careful and impartial in this chronological digest of English History, but not always literally correct. The Turkish squadron, for instance, when attacked by the allied fleets of England, France, and Russia in the Bay of Navarino, was more than "worsted:" it was all but annihilated; and the cabbage-garden affair of O'Brien and Mitchell in 1848 can scarcely be described as "a formidable insurrection in Tipperary." An Englishman would say "the repeal of the Corn Laws" and not "repealment," and for "not ere long" in the following sentence, he would most likely say "shortly afterwards:" "the army landed in the Crimea on the 14th of September, and not ere long gained the victory of the river Alma over the Russian forces on the 20th of September." With such trifling drawbacks, the "Chronological Digest" is a most creditable performance.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE WEEK.

- ALISON (Sir Archibald, Bart., D.C.L.) History of Europe, from the Fall of Napoleon in 1815 to the Accession of Louis Napoleon in 1852. Vol. 2. Eighth Thousand. Cr. 8vo., pp. ix+434. Blackwoods. 4s.
- ARMSTRONG (Capt. C. F.) Cruise of the *Daring*. A Tale of the Sea. New Edition. (Library of Popular Authors.) Fcap. 8vo., bds., pp. 315. Ward and Lock. 2s.
- ARMSTRONG (Capt. C. F.) Sailor Hero; or, the Frigate and the Lugger. New Edition. (Library of Popular Authors.) Fcap. 8vo., bds., pp. 319. Ward and Lock. 2s.
- ATLAS. Oxford Local Examinations for 1864. Middle-Class Atlas for Junior Students; comprising all the Maps required for the Geographical Examinations in May, 1864. By Walter M'Leod, F.R.G.S. Seven Coloured Maps, 4to., sd. Longman. 1s. 6d.
- BARBER (M. A. S.) Sweet Childhood, and its Helpers in Heathen Lands; being a Record of Church Missionary Work among the Young in Africa, the East, and Prince Rupert's Land. With Illustrations. Fcap. 8vo., pp. xi+324. Nisbet. 5s.
- BEECHER (Lyman, D.D.) Autobiography, Correspondence, &c. Edited by his Son, Charles Beecher. With Illustrations. In Two Volumes. Vol. I. Post 8vo., pp. 502. Low. 10s. 6d.
- BIRDS AND BIRD-LIFE. Papers contributed by F. T. Buckland, W. C. L. Martin W. Kidd, and other Naturalists. (Shilling Books for Leisure Hours.) Sq. cr. 8vo., pp. 285. Religious Tract Society. 8d., 1s. cl. 2s.
- BIRKS (Rev. T. R., M.A.) Bible and Modern Thought. With an Appendix. 12mo., pp. viii+516. Religious Tract Society. 4s. Appendix separate, 1s.
- BOYLE'S FASHIONABLE COURT AND COUNTRY GUIDE AND TOWN VISITING DIRECTORY, corrected for January 1864. Fcap. 8vo., bd. Office. 5s.
- BOYS (Edward). Narrative of a Captivity, Escape, and Adventures in France and Flanders during the War. Fourth Edition, Enlarged. Post 8vo., pp. ii+329. Newby. 7s. 6d.
- BOY'S (The) Christmas Annual. (Being the Boy's Journal for the Year.) Illustrated. 8vo., pp. 506.ickers. 5s.
- BRAITHWAITE'S RETROSPECT OF MEDICINE, being a Half-Yearly Journal containing a Retrospective View of every Discovery and Practical Improvement in the Medical Sciences. Edited by W. Braithwaite, M.D., and James Braithwaite, M.D. Vol. 48. July—December 1863. Post 8vo., pp. xlvii+400. Simpkin. 6s.
- BRAITHWAITE (W., M.D., and James, M.D.) Commentary on Midwifery and the Diseases of Women and Children for the last Half-Year. With the Opinions of the best Writers on the Subject. No. 6. (Reprinted from "Braithwaite's Retrospect," Vol. 48. July—December 1863.) Post 8vo., sd., pp. x+98. Simpkin. 2s. 6d.
- BUNDLE OF BALLADS (A). Edited by the Author of "Guy Livingstone." Sq. cr. 8vo., pp. vi+141. Tinsley. 6s.
- BUNGENER (Felix). Two Christmas Days and the Two Christmas Trees. Translated from the French. 12mo., cl. sd., pp. 39. Nisbet. 8d.
- CHAMBERS'S JOURNAL OF POPULAR LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ARTS. Conducted by William and Robert Chambers. Vol. 20. Nos. 496 to 521. July—December 1863. Sup.-roy. 8vo., pp. vii+416. Chambers. 4s. 6d.
- CHAPMAN (John, M.D., M.R.C.P.) Functional Diseases of Women: Cases illustrative of a New Method of Treating Them through the Agency of the Nervous System by means of Cold and Heat. Also, an Appendix containing Cases illustrative of a New Method of Treating Epilepsy, Paralysis, and Diabetes. 8vo., sd., pp. xviii+74. Trübner. 2s. 6d.
- CHURCH OF ENGLAND MAGAZINE (The). Vol. 55. July to December 1863. Imp. 8vo., pp. 474. Hughes. 5s. 6d.
- COOPER (J. Fenimore). Mark's Reef; or, The Grater. A Tale of the Pacific. New Edition. Fcap. 8vo., sd., pp. 359. Routledge. 1s.

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 ENGINEER'S (The), Architect's, and Contractor's Pocket-Book for 1864. 12mo., roan tuck, pp. 374. *Lockwood*. 6s.
 ENTOMOLOGIST'S ANNUAL (The) for 1864. Fcap. 8vo., bds., pp. 172. *Van Voorst*. 2s. 6d.
 FERGUSON AND GILL. The Rock-cut Temples of India. Illustrated by 74 Photographs taken on the Spot by Major Gill. Described by James Fergusson, F.R.S., M.R.A.S. 8vo., pp. xx-78. *Murray*. 63s.
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MISCELLANEA.

AT the present moment, when the laity are quite as much alive to the importance of several of the issues raised by the volume of "Essays and Reviews" and Bishop Colenso's "Inquiries respecting the Pentateuch and Book of Joshua" as the clergy themselves, it may not be uninteresting to give the statistics of the recent episcopal ordinations, showing the proportions of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin men who have just entered the ministry of the Church of England, as compared with the numbers from other sources. Of the 285 gentlemen admitted to the diaconate and the priesthood on Sunday, the 20th ult., Oxford sent 86; Cambridge, 117; King's College, London, 15; and Trinity College, Dublin, 12—a total, from these four sources, of 230. The remaining 55 are thus accounted for—from St. Bees Divinity College, Cumberland, 12; University of Durham, 10; St. Aidan's Theological College, Birkenhead, 9; Cuddesden Theological College (diocese of Oxford), 7; Literate persons, 5; Lichfield Theological College, 3; University of London, 3; St. Mark's College, Chelsea, 2; Battersea Training College, 1; Nicolas College, Lancing (diocese of Chichester), 1; Chichester Theological College, 1; Queen's College, Birmingham (diocese of Worcester), 1.

THE "Grand Prix Cuvier," founded in honour of the illustrious naturalist, and which is given triennially by the French Institute, has been recently awarded to Sir Roderick Murchison, Director-General of the Geological Survey, author of "The Silurian System of Rocks," &c., &c. This is the first occasion on which that honour has been conferred on a geologist, it having previously been granted for advance made in the other branches of science in which, as well as in geology, Cuvier was pre-eminent.

OUR obituary contains the name of the Earl of Charlemont, the son of the patriot, who died last week at Marino, county of Dublin, in his eighty-ninth year. He was the intimate friend of Moore and Byron, and married, in 1802, the beautiful and witty Anne Bermingham, whose praises both bards were fond of sounding. Lord Charlemont was an elegant scholar, and a "wit among wits" no less than among lords.

AMONGST recent deaths we have to announce that of Mr. Andrew Park, the Scottish songwriter, at Glasgow, we believe in his fifty-fifth year. Mr. Park, though known to literary men south of the Tweed only as a tolerable writer of lyrical pieces, enjoyed considerable popularity in Scotland, where an edition of his collected works appeared in one volume, royal octavo, in 1854, since which time he has published "Egypt and the East," in 1857, and "The World, Past, Present, and Future," in 1862. The most popular of his songs, "Hurrah for the Highlands!" "We cannot part to-night," "We'll row thee o'er the Clyde," "Auld Dugald Paul," and "The Railway Stag," &c., will keep his name alive in his native city of Renfrew no less than in Glasgow, where he resided at the time of his death, and was much esteemed as a warm-hearted man.

THE Dean of Ely's "Memoir of the late Bishop Mackenzie" will be published in a few days by Messrs. Deighton, Bell, & Co. of Cambridge.

WE have been requested to state that the Stratford-on-Avon Shakespeare Tercentenary Committee has been joined by the Mayor of Liverpool, by Mr. J. C. Ewart, M.P. for Liverpool, and by Dr. Hume, who, after the preliminary meeting on the 21st ult., convened at Liverpool by the Mayor, at

which Mr. Flower, the Mayor of Stratford-on-Avon, attended by express invitation, consented to have their names added to the list of vice-presidents. Mr. Flower had previously, on the 14th ult., attended a meeting in Manchester, at the invitation of the mayor of that city, when the following resolution was unanimously adopted:—"That this committee fully recognise the strong claims which the local committee of Stratford-on-Avon have upon the public generally throughout the kingdom for co-operation and assistance, in their determination to secure at Stratford-on-Avon a national monument; and that this committee undertake, in such manner as may be hereafter determined, to give their cordial assistance to such local committee." On the 18th ult. he had also attended a meeting at Birmingham, at the invitation of the mayor of that town, when the following resolution was carried unanimously:—"That this meeting fully recognises the strong claims which the local committee of Stratford-on-Avon have upon the public generally throughout the kingdom, and especially upon Birmingham, for co-operation and assistance in their determination to celebrate the tercentenary of Shakespeare's birth."

MR. PHILLIMORE has published a reply in a rather thick pamphlet to the article in the *Edinburgh Review* on his "History of the Reign of George the Third."

A NEW paper is about to be started in Paris in English, to supply those who cannot pay 10 sous per day for *Galignani's Messenger* with useful information on Paris life for 4 sous. It is to contain the news of the day, criticisms on the theatres, where and how to get the best dinner, the last literary gossip, an article on shops and fashions; and the Saturday number will be devoted to the churches' church-music. The editor is to be Mr. North Peat, a gentleman favourably known in the world of letters.

OUR readers will remember a story, in the letters of the *Times* correspondent in Poland, of an English clergyman who was imprisoned by the Russians on mere unfounded suspicion, and only liberated by the prompt and firm efforts of another English clergyman, who, it is perhaps no breach of confidence to say, is the Public Orator of the University of Cambridge. The imprisoned clergyman is about to publish his experiences.

THE new series of *Chambers's Journal*, the first number of which appears to-day, is printed in a larger type than its predecessors, and complies with the prevailing fashion of the day by the introduction of the first two chapters of a serial tale, "Lost Sir Massingberd."

THE January number of *Good Words* contains the first of a series of papers by Isaac Taylor, entitled "Personal Recollections." They are to be continued throughout the year, and ought to be interesting. Among the other serials to appear in the pages of this popular periodical throughout the year are: a three-volume story by the author of "East Lynne," a set of natural history papers by Mr. P. H. Gosse, called "A Year at the Shore," and papers by the Editor, Dr. Norman Macleod, entitled "Evenings with Working People."

THE First Part of *Christian Work: a Magazine of Religious and Missionary Information*, has just been published at the office of *Good Words*. It contains eight articles on missionary subjects, among which is one on "Medical Missions," and an appendix of letters "descriptive of the movements in all countries affecting Christian work." Should this last portion of the publication be well done, it will meet the views of many who have been seeking for such a compend of missionary information.

IN consequence of a special request, Mr. Martin F. Tupper had the honour of a private interview with their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales at Frogmore on Sunday last, as we are informed by his publishers.

THE Crystal Palace stands high in public favour this Christmas. During the six days ending Friday, December 25, the number admitted at the doors was 12,274; and on Boxing-day, including 2902 season ticket-holders, it rose to the enormous number of 43,741, against last year's total of 33,315. In 1861, when Blondin's performances were part of the attraction, there were 39,099 admissions at the doors, this year's total showing an increase, as against that year, of 4632, and as against last Christmas, of 10,426.

THE old-established firm of literary auctioneers of which Samuel Baker was the founder in 1744, and which has more recently been known under the name of Samuel Leigh Sotheby and Wilkinson, has just received a partner, as will be seen by our advertisement, in Mr. Edward Grose

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Hodge, a gentleman long connected with it, and much respected by the booksellers who frequent the rooms, by book-collectors, and by literary men generally.

MESSRS. LONGMAN & CO. will publish during this month Sir J. Emerson Tennent's long-expected "Story of the Guns;" Lord Robert Montagu's "Four Experiments in Church and State," with observations on the conflict of Churches; Part II. of Professor Anster's translation of Goethe's "Faustus;" and the Rev. G. W. Cox's "Tales of Thebes and Argos."

MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO. have just issued "The Statesman's Year-Book for 1864," containing a variety of useful information as respects "Sovereigns, Governments, Armaments, Education, Population, Religion, &c., of every Nation in the World." Amongst their announcements of forthcoming publications of the Clarendon Press at Oxford are: Professor Goldwin Smith's "Short History of England down to the Reformation;" "Britton: the First-known Treatise upon the Common Law of England, written in the Language of the Courts," with an English version and notes by Mr. F. M. Nichols; and "The Texts of the Earliest MSS. of the Greek Testament, arranged with parallel columns, and compared with the edition of Robert Stephens, of 1550," by the Rev. E. H. Ansell.

MESSRS. BLACKWOOD & SONS have in the press: "The Scot Abroad, and other Miscellanies," by Mr. J. Hill Burton; "Index Geographicus; being an Index to nearly 150,000 Names of Places, with their Latitudes and Longitudes," a companion to Keith Johnston's Royal Atlas; and an "Advanced Text-book of Physical Geography," by David Page, F.R.S.E.

MESSRS. RIVINGTONS will publish in a few days: "The Psalms Interpreted of Christ; with Notes and Reflections," by the Rev. Isaac Williams; "School Sermons," by the Head Master of Leamington College; "Sermons on the Beatitudes," by the Hon. and Rev. Robert Henley; and "Critical Essays," by the Rev. T. E. Espin.

MESSRS. SMITH, ELDER, & Co. announce as nearly ready: "The Hekim Bashi; or, Adventures of Guiseppe Antonelli, a Physician in the Turkish Service," by the author of "The Siege of Kars;" Mr. E. B. Eastwick's "Journal of a Diplomatic Three Years' Residence in Persia;" an important military work by Colonel Graham, author of "The Art of War," under the title of "Military Ends and Moral Means;" and "Historical Odes and other Poems," by the Rev. R. W. Dixon.

MESSRS. CHAPMAN AND HALL announce the following novels for publication during the present month: "Vladimir and Catherine, or Keiv in the Year 1861;" Mr. Charles Clarke's "A Box for the Season, by the Author of 'Charlie Thornhill,'" and "Dan to Beersheba, or Northern and Southern Friends." They have also just ready the fourth volume of Carlyle's "History of Friedrich the Second;" Mr. Percy Fitzgerald's "Life of Laurence Sterne;" Mr. Wright's "Life of General Wolfe;" and "English Writers before Chaucer," by Mr. H. Morley.

AMONG the new works announced by Messrs. Hurst and Blackett for appearance during the present month are: "Court and Society from Elizabeth to Anne," edited from the papers at Kimbolton, by the Duke of Manchester, two volumes 8vo., with fine portraits;" "A Young Artist's Life," by Alexander Baillie Cochrane, M.P., in one volume;" "Wildfire," a novel, by Walter Thornbury, in three volumes; and "Ella Norman; or, A Woman's Perils," by Elizabeth A. Murray, three volumes.

MR. VAN VOORST will publish in a few days the second volume of "British Conchology," by J. Gwyn Jeffreys, F.R.S., F.G.S., &c., containing marine mollusca, with full particulars of their geographical and geological distribution, habits, and synonymy. It will be illustrated with several plates.

MR. SAMUEL PHILLIPS DAY, formerly special correspondent of the *Morning Herald*, and author of "Down South; or, Experiences at the Seat of War in America," has in the press, in two volumes octavo, "British North America; or, a Journey through Canada in 1862, exhibiting our Colonial Possessions in America in their Moral, Social, Religious, Physical, Military, Economical, and Industrial Aspects."

WE copy the following statistics as to the changes in the Episcopal bench for the last seven years from the *Times* of Saturday. During that period "Dr. Longley has succeeded Dr. J. B. Sumner in the archbishopric of Canterbury, and Dr. Thomson has succeeded Dr. Musgrave in the archbishopric of York. The see of London is now

occupied by Dr. Tait, in the room of Dr. Blomfield; that of Durham by Dr. Baring, in the room of Dr. Maltby; that of Rochester by Dr. Wigram, in the room of Dr. Murray; that of Bangor by Dr. Campbell, in the room of Dr. Bethell; that of Ripon by Dr. Bickersteth, in the room of Dr. Longley; that of Worcester by Dr. Philpott, in the room of Dr. Pepys; that of Norwich by Dr. Pelham, in the room of Dr. Hinds; that of Carlisle by Dr. Waldegrave, in the room of Dr. Villiers; and that of Gloucester and Bristol by Dr. Ellicott, in the room of Dr. Baring. We have thus 11 changes in the seven years among 28 English and Welsh bishoprics, so that the average career of a bishop does not much exceed 15 or 16 years. This is a very fair allowance, however, considering that divines do not become bishops until they are well advanced in years."

EARLY this month will appear at Paris: "Histoire de la Ligue Hanseatique, par Emile Worms: ouvrage couronné par l'Institut," in one volume octavo.

MR. H. J. GRAINGER of Heidelberg has published in that city "An Epitome of the History of the English Language and Literature, with short Biographical Notices, &c.," chiefly founded on Chambers's "Cyclopædia of English Literature."

VOLUMES 684-686 of Tauchnitz's "Collection of British Authors" contain Mrs. Henry Wood's tale, "The Shadow of Ashlydyat." "Verloren und Gerettet" is a translation of Mrs. Norton's "Lost and Saved," by F. Seybald, which has just appeared at Leipzig. Professor Huxley's "Evidence as to Man's Place in Nature" has been translated into German by J. Victor Carus, and published at Brunswick. It is well spoken of by German critics.

A CRITICAL essay on Shakespeare's "Othello" has been published by Mr. F. Lüders at Hamburg, under the title of "Beiträge zur Erklärung von Shakespeare's Othello." It consists of 108 octavo pages, and presents several clever conjectural readings, as well as other elucidations of the text.

"ERINNERUNGEN Deutscher Offiziere in Britischen Diensten, aus den Kriegsjahren 1805-16," by H. Dernel, is the title of a book, just published at Hanover, of recollections of the Peninsular war and the campaign of Waterloo, by still surviving officers of "The King's German Legion."

THE first volume of a new history of the Thirty Years' War, chiefly from hitherto unpublished sources, has just been given to the world by F. Keym, under the title of "Geschichte des 30 jährigen Krieges; nach den Resultaten der neueren Forschungen dargestellt."

AT Altona there has just appeared, as "Supplement to Goethe's Works," "Juristische Abhandlung über die Flöhe, (de pulibus.) Von Johann Wolfgang Goethe." As far back as 1839 an edition of the original Latin text and German translation was published at Berlin, also with Goethe's name, which gave rise to Von der Hagen's paper on the subject, reprinted in the fourth volume of "Germania," in which it is shown that the work originally appeared anonymously at Marburg in 1635, more than a century before the birth of Goethe.

AN important work connected with the history of Sicily has just made its appearance in Palermo, being the first volume of "Collezione de Opera Inedite o Rare riguardanti la Sicilia," which contains "Discorso storico-apologetico della Monarchia di Sicilia, composto da Giambattista Caruso. Per la prima volta pubblicato ed annotato per G. M. Mira." It is an octavo volume of some 400 pages. The second volume of the series will consist of "Diario Palermitano del 1713 al 1718 di A. Mongitore." Signor Eugenio Cipolletta has published at Milan "Memorie Politiche sui Conclavi da Pio VII. a Pio IX., compilate su Documenti Segreti rinvenuti negli Archivi degli esteri dell' Exregno delle Due Sicilie."

CORRESPONDENCE.

(Anonymous Communications cannot be inserted.)

JEWISH SHEKELS.

To the Editor of THE READER.

SIR,—Mr. Noel Humphreys's explanatory letter of the 26th inst., however far it may convince the public of my "imposition," has failed to convince me that I am an impostor. To enter into my reasons for all my assertions would not only occupy too much space, but too much time, and I therefore confine myself to one or two observations.

I again reiterate that "only those who blindly follow De Sauley would make such statements as

are in Mr. Humphreys's paper; for the works of Cavedoni and Levy have proved them to be incorrect."

The Cavedoni that I refer to is not the "interesting and instructive pamphlet" published in 1850, but the German translation of Cavedoni, with additions by A. von Werlhof, the first volume of which was published in 1855, and the second in 1856. In the preface of the second volume, as also at p. 4 seq. of the same volume, Mr. Humphreys will find matter bearing directly upon M. de Sauley's theories, and of a nature not to be easily set aside.

With regard to the work of Dr. Levy, "the simple and brief statement" afforded by Mr. Humphreys is not sufficient. Why does Mr. Humphreys quote against me the remarks of the reviewer of this work, and not look at the work itself? Had he done so, he would have found that Dr. Levy so utterly discredits De Sauley's theories that he has not even noticed them.

The highest English authorities on this subject, I regret to say, are very few. I have every respect for Mr. Evans as a practical numismatist, and I cannot doubt for one moment that at the time he wrote the review of De Sauley's book he felt convinced of the correctness of De Sauley's theories. But had he then read Werlhof's translation of Cavedoni, and does he agree with De Sauley now?

For the question of the "Actian era" I should recommend Mr. Humphreys, first of all, to study the coins themselves; secondly, not to copy Eckhel; and, thirdly, to look at Mommsen, *Geschichte des Römischen Münzwesens*, p. 719, note 190.

For the question of the two Agrippas there is no work to which I can refer Mr. Humphreys for satisfactory information. I have reason to believe that one will shortly be published. In the meantime, Cavedoni (vol. ii., p. 35) may be consulted.

In conclusion, I may remark that a knowledge of the numismatics of any particular people or period cannot be attained without a long study of the coins themselves, and an acquaintance with the current coin-literature. That one who calls himself a "numismatist" should pick out the works of Cavedoni (1850) and De Sauley (1854), copy their statements (regardless if any advancement had been made since those days), and still more attempt to vindicate them, seems to me unwise. In not many months' time Mr. Humphreys will be able to read in English the whole history of Jewish coins up to the present time, and I shall be glad then to consider any of his strictures; in the meantime, before he again states that my "assertions are dogmatic" I beg him to study the work of Cavedoni (the one I alluded to), that of Levy, and the article "Money" in Dr. Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible," where may be found a fair statement of De Sauley's attributions with judicious objections to his theories.—I am, Sir, yours, F. W. M.

Dec. 30, 1863.

THE ART-JOURNAL AND MISS HOSMER.

To the Editor of THE READER.

SIR,—Your readers who have visited the studios of the great sculptors in Rome are aware that the method of their production of statues is briefly as follows:—

The sculptor, having designed a figure, first makes a sketch of it in clay a few inches only in height. When he has satisfied himself with the general attitude, a cast is taken of his sketch, and from it a model in clay is prepared of the full size he designs for his statue, whether half the natural height, or life-size, or colossal. The process of building the clay, as it is called, upon the strong iron *armatura* or skeleton on which it stands on its pedestal, and the bending and fixing this *armatura* into the form of the limbs, constitute a work of vast labour of a purely manual sort, for whose performance all artists able to afford it employ the skilled workmen to be obtained in Rome. The rough clay, rudely assuming the shape of the intended statue, then passes into the sculptor's hands and undergoes his most elaborate manipulation, by which it is reduced (generally after the labour of several months) to the precise and perfectly-finished form he desires should hereafter appear in marble. This done, the *formatore* takes a cast of the whole, and the clay is destroyed. From this last plaster cast again in due time the marble is hewn by three successive workmen. The first gives it rough outline, the second brings it by rule and compass to close resemblance with the cast, and the third finishes it to perfection.

It is a question debated among artists whether the work of this third marble-cutter, who finishes the statue, ought not to be performed by the sculptor himself. Without urging the point, I shall merely remark that Thorwaldsen, Canova, Gibson, and Tenerani have left all their statues, with one single exception, to be thus finished by men in their employment, and have no more thought it necessary for them to add manual execution to their perfect designs in clay, and to chisel their own marble, than for an architect to lay his own bricks and fasten his tiles.

I have given this short account of the processes of sculpture because it is necessary that the reader should be acquainted with it, to form a judgment respecting the extraordinary statement which has lately been published against the young lady whose statue of Zenobia (in the same temple with Gibson's Venus) in the International Exhibition excited such deserved interest that the assertion that she was *not* its author can hardly fail to have attracted attention. It will be observed that the process above described leaves the sculptor open to the possibility of two charges. It may be said that the workman who set up his clay completed the model. This would be a line of attack addressing itself to fellow-artists and connoisseurs. Or it may be said that, as the stone-cutters alone have touched the marble, the sculptor has no claim to the work. This would be a line of attack addressed to the outer public, who know nothing of the processes of sculpture, and believe that an artist ought to exclaim, like Michael Angelo, that he "sees a god" in a formless block of stone, and incontinently proceed with mallet and chisel to set him free! Happily, it is not often that the mere possibility of bringing a charge is taken advantage of to give scope to an injurious accusation against an artist of high character and reputation. Such, however, seems to have been the case in regard to a paragraph quoted in the *Art-Journal* of September last from a minor periodical, and now current with the authority of the former paper, bearing the distinct assertion before-mentioned that Miss Hosmer was not the sculptress of the Zenobia, but that it was the work of an Italian artist now in Rome.

On having my attention called to this charge I purposed to offer my testimony, with that of many other visitors of Miss Hosmer's studio, to the singular diligence with which we have watched her pursue her labours—a diligence so remarkable as to make such an accusation more ill-applied to her than probably to any other living artist. It would be an impertinence, however, to add any other witness whatever to that of her master, Mr. Gibson, from whom I have just received the following statement, with his permission to make it public.—I am, Sir, yours, &c.,

Florence, Nov. 30. FRANCES POWER COBBE.

[COPY.]

Finding that my pupil Miss Hosmer's progress in her art begins to agitate some rivals of the male sex, as proved by the following words printed in the *Art-Journal*—"Zenobia, said to be executed by Miss Hosmer, but really executed by an Italian workman in Rome"—I feel it is but justice on my part to state that Miss Hosmer became my pupil on her arrival at Rome from America. I soon found that she had uncommon talents. She studied under my own eyes for seven years, modelling from the antique, and her own original works from the living models. The first report of her Zenobia was that it was the work of Mr. Gibson, afterwards that it is by a Roman workman. So far it is true that it was built up by my man from her own original small model, according to the practice of our profession; the long study and finishing is by herself, like every other sculptor. If Miss Hosmer's works were the productions of other artists and not her own, there would be in my studio two impostors—Miss Hosmer and myself. Rome, November 1863. JOHN GIBSON, R.A.

SCIENCE.

ANTROLOGY.

WE trust that the eminent naturalist whom we lately heard making use of this latest "ology"—a word doubtless of his own coining—will forgive us for placing it at the head of this article, seeing that we have to bring to notice some papers lately presented to the French Academy which in an eminent degree foreshadow its usefulness and the vastness of that branch of science which it so admirably indicates.

Sir Charles Lyell's lately published *résumé* of the knowledge we already possess on the subject of man's antiquity renders all mention here of what may be called the cave-evidence unnecessary—a reference to his work will at once point out all its importance, already abundantly recognised both by English and French anthropologists, and enhanced by the recent discoveries both in Denmark and Switzerland.

Among the bone-caves in France described as far back as 1848 is that of Bruniquel (Tarn-et-Garonne), while, among others more recently explored, we may mention those at Pradières, Bèdeillac, Sabart, two at Niaux, Ussat, Fontanet, and others. These seven have recently been described by MM. Garrigou and Filhol; and from their paper* we learn that the common conditions of the caverns have, in all cases, led to a common occupation of them by animals, and even by man himself, as evidenced by remains of his handiwork. The floors of all these caves are covered by a *talus*, similar to that outside, overlying a clayey soil; and immediately under the surface the evidences of man's habitation commence to show themselves, although it is at a distance of one or even two metres that they become most unmistakable. Successive *strata*, as it were, of charcoal and cinders tell of fires by which these early men lit up their strange abodes and cooked their food; strange marrow-bones are there, too, and cleavers, although the latter were wanting in the ring of the ones better known to their posterity, and the former are not always those affected by modern epicures. The heads of the animals whose remains are found are always entire, although the skulls are generally broken; and this not only in the case of the *carnassiers*, the dog included, but of the ruminants also, of which the bones are often found in a burnt state. It is a very singular fact that, in none of these cases, in spite of the proofs of human habitation, have any traces of gnawing been found. Quantities of *Helix nemoralis* are mixed with the cinders, so that the first oyster-eater, after all, may not have been the brave man we paint him, but a mere imitator, the prototype of the modern snail-garden frequenter.

We have not space to mention *in extenso* the list of worked-bones and flints which MM. Garrigou and Filhol give as obtained from these caves. Flint, indeed, has not satisfied these cave-men, for knives and other articles formed of a very compact and hard silicious schist have been found, together with a hone made of sandstone. Leptinite, too, was called into requisition, and serpentine and quartzite for knives; while more than twenty hand-mills, from 20 to 60 centimètres in diameter, made in these materials and granite, have also been found. Fragments of coarse pottery complete the find. The animals of which the remains have been already determined are—a large and small ox, sheep, goat, antelope, chamois, *Sus scrofa ferus*, another smaller and domesticated, horse, wolf, dog, fox, hare, and others, besides two birds.

Our authors well remark that the discoveries made in Switzerland and Denmark of a pre-historic period in the succession of populations, lead one to think that the continents were inhabited at that epoch at the points where they are at this. The uniformity of the articles found, the general progress in the successive use of materials, also afford evidence that the human intelligence, identical everywhere in its primitive indications, has undergone the influences of many thousand years to arrive at its present standpoint. Different fauna have succeeded each other since man first appeared; and the populations among whom the three ages of stone, bronze, and iron were developed seem to connect the man of the present with him of Abbeville, and by this last with him of Chartres.

As the Swiss lakes furnished some of the pre-historic races with means of shelter from their enemies, so others of the same habits of

life, not, by their situation, able to avail themselves of such means of defence, chose their refuge and dwelling in the caves naturally formed for them in the rocks.

Turn we now to a subsequent* memoir on the first-named cavern, that of Bruniquel, in which not only traces of man's industry, but of man himself, have rewarded the industry of MM. Garrigou, Martin, and Trutat. This cavern is hollowed out of the jurassic limestone, and is similar to those before-mentioned; the floor of it has already been excavated to the depth of three metres; in the clayey bands especially, worked flints of all sizes and shapes at present known have been found in great abundance. The following species of animals are represented in the bone remains—reindeer, antelope, *Cervus elephas*, chamois, *Bos primigenius*, *Rhinoceros tichorhinus*, roebuck, goat, horse, wolf, dog, fox, a *carnassier* somewhat smaller than a fox, two *gallinacæ*, a large bird, and two species of fishes. The reindeer is the characteristic species of the age of the Bruniquel cavern, which places it in the third palæontological epoch of M. Lartet.

The humerus of the large bird before-mentioned bears sculptured upon it rude representations of several parts of a fish. This would suffice of itself to prove man's presence in the cave; but there is still stronger evidence in this cave in the shape of portions of two human jaws, found, we are assured, in the presence of ten witnesses, two metres down in the clayey stratum closely associated with flint implements and bones of different ruminants.

Here, then, we have Abbeville outdone, and perhaps the nucleus of another *cause célèbre*!

The blow which brought the first half jaw to light bruised the condyle and loosened several teeth, which it was found impossible to recover; one only (the first large molar) was left in its place. The first jaw, which belonged to an adult, is the lower one on the right side; the second one found is unmistakably that of an old man, and slightly differs from the former one; the second large molar is missing, and the alveole has disappeared. This second is a half lower left jaw, and the lower border is a little less straight than in the other one. We give, for the benefit of our anatomical readers, M. Garrigou's description of the first fragments:—

1° *Face externe.* Le bord inférieur de la branche dentaire est presque rectiligne, se relevant un peu avant d'arriver à la symphyse du menton, après avoir rencontré une sorte d'épine vis-à-vis l'espace qui sépare la canine de la première petite molaire. La courbure de la branche ascendante sur la branche horizontale n'est pas très-brusque. Le bord alvéolaire forme un angle plutôt légèrement aigu que droit avec le bord antérieur de la branche ascendante. Ce bord va en s'arrondissant légèrement à la partie antérieure vers la première molaire. Il n'y a rien de brusque dans cette courbure.

2° *Face interne.* Le bord alvéolaire s'élargit fortement sur le point d'insertion de la dernière grosse molaire et forme une saillie. L'angle postérieur et inférieur des deux branches de la mâchoire rentre très-sensiblement de dehors en dedans, sans que la face externe présente de saillies, et limite avec la protubérance formée par l'alvéole de la dernière molaire une gouttière qui se prolonge jusque vers la canine. Les points d'insertions musculaires à la face interne de l'angle postérieur et inférieur sont très-développés.

3° Du milieu de la courbure et de l'angle saillant formé par la rencontre des deux branches ascendante et horizontale, au point le plus en relief du menton, 10 centimètres; du bord supérieur des alvéoles des incisives au bord antérieur de la branche ascendante, 7 centimètres; hauteur de la branche horizontale, en arrière 2½, en avant 3 centimètres.

4° La mâchoire est arrondie en avant, formant un menton rond et non carré. Le bord alvéolaire à la partie externe paraît limiter un espace parabolique.

5° Les dents sont implantées d'une manière perpendiculaire sur la mâchoire.

Passing over a comparison made by our authors with the Moulin-Quignon jaw, we

* *Comptes-Rendus*, tome lvii., p. 841.

* *Comptes-Rendus*, tom. cit., p. 1000.

may mention that an examination of these bones has shown a certain resemblance with those previously obtained in the caves of Lombrines, Bédouillac, and Saleich. On these specimens is found the channel on the interior face; but the chin is squarer in those coming from Lombrines. In those derived from the caves of Ariège, the space circumscribed by the alveolar border forms a triangle, while in the Bruniquel jaws it is parabolic, and the aforesaid channel is more strongly marked.

Thus we find, then, three human jaws of the same brachycephalic type dating from three perfectly different epochs—the one from Aurignac associated with *Ursus spelæus*, that from Moulin-Quignon lying side by side with *Elephas primigenius*, and this last discovery of M. Garrigou's found with remains of Reindeer.

MM. Garrigou, Martin, and Trutat conclude their memoir (which has been referred to the Toul bone-cave Committee) by pointing out the evidence thus furnished of a uniformity of type prevailing during so long a period; and this certainly is not among the least valuable of the observations which are suggested by their valuable discovery.

THE MICROSCOPIC STRUCTURE OF HUMAN HAIR.

M. PRUNER-BEY of Paris, the late physician to the Viceroy of Egypt, has just published a most important memoir on human hair, in which the researches which this observer has undertaken with the microscope are detailed, and illustrated with a series of the most valuable original drawings.

From the highest antiquity, the hair of the human species has attracted the attention of observers, but until a recent epoch, merely the colour of the hair and the outward appearance have been characterized. These easily recognisable characters have been described both in individuals and in nations, and from the time of the Greeks the epithets *λειότριχες*, *σφόδριχες*, *ξανθοί πυρρόι*, and other descriptive terms have been used, and now modern science, aided by the microscope, has enlarged the sphere of our knowledge. Heusinger noticed that in the negro each hair formed an elliptical section, which fact was afterwards proved by Kölliker. Browne, in Schoolcraft's work on the American tribes, published detailed researches, in which he alleged that specific differences prevailed between the hair of the "Aryan," the negro, the Chinese, and the native American. M. Pruner-Bey was induced to take up the question in detail on account of the great state of confusion in which the subject appeared to him. He has carried on a microscopical examination of the hair of the different regions of the body, especially of men and the anthropoid apes. No accurate information was afforded him respecting the hair of the races of North America and Higher Asia, but he considers that his induction is sufficiently vast to generalize respecting the hair of the other races of mankind. The external character of the hair he reviews at great length, from the coarse and smooth type, almost reaching the heel, of the Blackfoot or the Sioux Indians, to the contortuplicated tufts, which scarcely touch the shoulder of the negress or the Bosjesman. The length of hair is a variable character in the two sexes of the same origin, whilst it is so much under the influence of climate and hygiene, and varies even in individuals of the same family, that it is not of great classificatory value. The abundance of hair, also a variable character, is dependent on the general rule that the more fine and supple the hair is the more hairs are implanted in a given space. The colour of the hair, which appears, on the one hand, to bear some amount of correlation with that of the skin and of the iris, on the other hand offers more or less persistency as a race-character. Black hair is to be found in every part of the globe—equatorial, arctic, or temperate; whether in the Esquimaux, Negro, Brahminic Hindoo, Malay, or in many Europeans. The light-haired races, of whom the tint varies through the imperceptible shades of flaxen, yellow, straw-yellow, golden-yellow, red, fiery-red, reddish-brown, clear brown, dark or chestnut-brown, are nearly as widely spread, and indicate, especially the clear blonde tint, the Germanic, Slavonic, and Celtic divisions of the "Aryan" race, the Finnic branch of the Turanians, in the Caucasus, Armenia, amongst the Shemites of Syria, sometimes amongst the Jews, and perhaps in Africa

amongst the Berbers of the Atlas. Red hair, on the other hand, is represented amongst all the known races. The colour alone of the hair M. Pruner-Bey considers to be inadequate to characterize race. The head of hair becomes smooth when the individual hairs are rectilinear, curled when they curve at their extremities, frizzed when they are composed of curves throughout their whole length, and crisp when they are disposed in more or less large rings which resemble those of wool. In the majority of the races of mankind the hair issues obliquely out of the cutaneous envelope; on the Hottentot, Papou, and many negroes the hair is implanted perpendicularly. M. Pruner-Bey enters into length as to the differences in the hair when microscopically examined in its longitudinal direction, which, again, he considers insufficient to indicate race-characters. As regards the transverse sections, their examination forms the most striking part of our author's paper. This method permits the examination of the contour of the hair, its diameter and thickness; the ascertainment of the presence or absence of a medullary substance, and of its relations with the cortex. In the negro the hair is elliptical and exceedingly flat; the medullary substance is not always present; the centre is never empty. In the Papou the medullary substance is usually present; but the central spot which indicates it is more narrow than in the negro. This central spot is also very conspicuous in the New Zealander, Malay, some Australians, Japanese, and Chinese. Pruner-Bey proceeds with the microscopical analysis of the hair in the less known races of South America, which we pass over, as the whole subject is too complicated to be treated in brief. A similar analysis is carried on of the crinal characters of the other races of man, and of the male and female chimpanzee, male and female gorilla, orang-utan, gibbon, and baboon, the following being M. Pruner-Bey's chief conclusions:—That microscopical examination shows more diversities of aspect than are presented by the human hair to the naked eye; the more the hair is flattened the more it is curled; and the more it is rounded the more it becomes smooth and coarse. One of the extremities of the scale is represented by the Papous, the Bosjesmen, and negroes; the other by the Polynesians, Malays, Siamese, Japanese, Turanians, and Americans, without excepting the Esquimaux; the Aryans occupy the intermediate space. The Basques differ as much from the Aryan stock by their hair as by their language. Mixed breeds are recognisable by the fusion and juxtaposition of the characters inherent in the hair of their relations. The form of the hair produces more characteristic differences than the anatomical disposition of the constituent elements. Anatomically, there is only to be taken into consideration the transparent centre deprived of medullary substance in some branches of the Aryan race. But the fine points of the hairs belonging to the allophyllitic races present the same peculiarity. One single hair, when it presents the average shape characteristic of the race, may distinguish it; but, without pretending to this degree of certitude, it is indubitable that the head of hair of each individual bears the mark of its origin. Although there are appreciable differences of form between various hairs in the same individual, the extreme forms are only to be met with on the same head where there has been a mixture of blood. The hair, according to M. Pruner-Bey's method, appears to have an incontestable value in the study of inherent characters of the human races. Some will find transitional forms, as, for example, from the Polynesian to the Melanesian; from the Malay and the Lithuanian to the Turanian, &c.; from these and from the Basque to the American; while others will, perhaps, signalize, with as much energy and justice, diverse and constant forms even in this insignificant appendix of the skin. M. Pruner-Bey concludes by saying that the form of the hair is as certain as that of the shape of the skull, although the importance of the two characters may be unequal.

Such startling conclusions can only be accepted on the best evidence; and we hope that our readers may examine carefully the three lithographed plates which accompany the memoir, which seem to bear out the important generalizations of the French author, and to afford a new proof of the importance of the microscopical method of biological investigation.

M. FAYE ON THE ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF METEORITES.

WE have before alluded to M. Faye's new theory of falling stars, although at present we have been unable to give his memoir in *extenso*

as we hope to do; in the interim his latest contribution to the chemical part of the subject will be read with interest. After referring to his previous communications, he remarks that the phenomenon of shooting stars is not exclusively astronomic; it includes, besides, physics, chemistry, and mineralogy—physics, because it brings forward a new source of heat and of light, more intense, more powerful, perhaps, than all others, so much so that it alone would suffice to account for the heat and light of all the suns. Thanks to the dynamical theory of heat, we can now calculate the detailed circumstances of the passage of these asteroids in our atmosphere so as to account for the principal facts—such as sudden incandescence (even in the high regions where the air must be excessively rarefied), the explosion of those with a solid nucleus, and the vitrification of their external coatings.* Chemists admit that it is by these phenomena alone that we can obtain a knowledge of matter foreign to our globe, and be able to submit it to direct analysis. Mineralogy finds in these stones fallen from the heavens, besides minerals identical with our own, others which are altogether strange to us, associations of elements which must have taken place under special circumstances, and the study of which may lead us to some positive conclusions respecting those circumstances.

Chemical analysis, moreover, teaches us that the elements of aërolites are identical with ours, so that a chemist, to find the equivalent of iron, might apply himself indifferently to meteoric iron or that of our factories. This result confirms the opinions of astronomers, who place the first origin of the shooting stars in the circumsolar region in which the formation of our own globe took place; for, if we found them composed of new elements, totally different from those with which we are acquainted, we should be led to conclude that these meteorites come from the depths of space the farthest removed from our little solar world. Perhaps this study of the first elements remains to be completed by applying to cosmic matter the resources of spectral analysis.

But mineralogical researches possess, as before mentioned, a still more direct interest. Besides magnetic pyrites, pyroxene, augite, and, above all, olivine, which we find both in terrestrial and cosmic bodies, with all the characteristics of identity, these researches have revealed species totally foreign, of which the formation is due, not to different laws of affinity, but to special conditions of formation realized with us.

Many types of this kind have been noticed in aërolites: nickeliferous iron for example, carbon, and even a hydrocarburet of strictly inorganic origin (Wöhler), and a peculiar metallic phosphuret. The first simply leads to the idea that these bodies are derived from a medium without free oxygen or weakly combined; and this answers well to the astronomical theory of the emptiness of the celestial spaces, where neither the air nor the aqueous vapour of the earth exists, and where substances easily oxidized, like iron and nickel, would be indefinitely preserved, whilst on the earth they would speedily be attacked and destroyed. The second would perplex us if we did not know, from the experiments of M. Berthelot, that hydrogen may be combined with carbon without the intermediation of organic life. As to the third, it has not yet been studied from the point of view of its somewhat enigmatical formation. We do not know whether we should be able here entirely to reproduce it. For instance, schreibersite, the atomic composition of which is that of a perfectly-defined double phosphuret of iron and nickel, is constantly found, in small pieces or grains, in stony aërolites, and even in meteoric iron, of which a mass, once mechanically deprived of this metal, presents no trace of phosphorus. This is so different from the terrestrial kingdom, and this mineral is so peculiar to the meteorites, that it would be extremely interesting to attempt its reproduction. Schreibersite is seen in flakes or small yellow fragments of a metallic lustre similar to magnetic pyrites, with which it might often be confounded. It presents no trace of crystallization; the magnet attracts it powerfully, and imparts to it a durable polarization; it is unaffected by hydrochloric acid. According to Professor Lawrence Smith, who has strongly insisted upon the important and characteristic rôle of this exclusively cosmic mineral, its atomic formula would be $\text{Ni}^2\text{Fe}^2\text{P}_2$.

* M. R. de Reichenbach, *Poggendorff's Annalen*, No. 6, for 1863 (Review in *Le Moniteur Scientifique* of 1st October).

† Lawrence Smith, *Tenth Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institution*, 1856. M. Damour remarks that the nomenclature of mineralogists has varied upon this point: thus, Professor Shepard (U.S.) called, in 1843, *Dysidrite* the phosphuret which Mr. Smith (U.S.) named *Schreibersite* in 1856.

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It is to schreibersite alone that we can attribute the phosphorus of meteorites. M. H. Deville has placed his laboratory at M. Faye's disposal, and assisted him by his advice. The operation consisted in reducing with charcoal a given quantity of oxide of nickel and sesquioxide of iron, intimately mixed with a phosphate with a base of soda and silica. The quantities adopted were according to the following formula:—

| | Grains. |
|---------------------------------|---------|
| Sesquioxide of iron | 8 |
| Oxide of nickel | 3.7 |
| Pyrophosphate of soda | 10.1 |
| Silica | 6 |
| Charcoal | 2 |

This mixture, placed in a carbon crucible, protected by an earthen one, has been brought to, and maintained sometime at, a white heat. A black glass, containing a metallic dross, was obtained, besides a very distinct crust placed between the glass and the dross, adhering slightly to the first, but not to the second. The dross appeared to be an alloy or an intimate mixture of iron and nickel, superficially tarnished by a small quantity of sulphuret, the sulphur of which probably came from the oxide of iron used. When attacked largely by hydrochloric acid, the dross evolved at first a small quantity of sulphuretted hydrogen, and then pure hydrogen. But the intermediate zone between the dissolvent and the dross, where the part of the phosphorus not volatilized at first would be concentrated during the fusion, was formed of yellow flakes of a very bright metallic lustre, powerfully attracted by the magnet and completely unattackable either hot or cold by hydrochloric acid. This substance possesses the characteristics of schreibersite.

Mr. Faye concludes his memoir by remarking:—"As a necessary verification, the analysis of this artificial schreibersite will have to be made, to see whether it will remain mechanically intercalated in a mass of iron, without communicating its phosphorus to it; it will also be necessary to examine whether the greenish shade which is found in certain meteoric specimens is not due to the small quantity of cobalt which is generally found in them (one-third per cent.), and which I have been obliged to neglect; but the Academy will be pleased to consider that, on my part, the object of this attempt has been, principally, to call the attention of competent savans to these questions. The most characteristic mineral amongst extra-terrestrial substances seems to have been reproduced under circumstances sufficiently near to its theoretical indications—viz., by the aid of heat and apart from the contact of oxidizing agents; this, then, is what must have taken place in the case of the meteorites, the general texture of which shows an igneous origin, and one which the least particles of iron have been preserved for thousands of centuries without a trace of alteration, mixed with materials incapable of communicating to them the least portion of their oxygen."

ON THE APPALACHIANS AND ROCKY MOUNTAINS AS TIME-BOUNDARIES IN GEOLOGICAL HISTORY.*

THE Appalachian mountains, extending from Labrador to Alabama, and the Rocky chain, facing the Pacific from the Arctic to the Isthmus of Darien, are the two great mountain chains of the North American continent. They are the heights which determine its features—one constituting the Atlantic border-chain, the other, the Pacific, and the two forming the limits of the vast interior continental basin. All other lines of heights are small in comparison.

If the elevation of mountains has ever made epochs in geological history, or time-boundaries between its ages, we should look to the elevation of these chains for the profoundest of all divisions in the chronology of the North American continent. And, corresponding with this expectation, these two cases of mountain-raising stand out as boldly between the grander eras of time, as the mountains themselves do geographically between the oceans and the continental interior. The three eras, after the Azoic, recognised by geologists, are the *Palæozoic*, or ancient time, the *Mesozoic*, or mediæval time, and the *Cenozoic*, or recent time; the first and second having their intervening limit between the Carboniferous and Reptilian ages, and the second and third between the Cretaceous period closing the Reptilian age and the Tertiary commencing the age of Mammals.† Now, the eleva-

tions of the two mountain chains referred to date from the limits of these eras. At the first of these limits, or as the closing act in Palæozoic history, the rocks of the Appalachian region were flexed into numerous folds, in part crystallized, and, over a country more than a thousand miles in length, lifted into mountain ranges. And at the second, or as the introduction of Cenozoic time, the mass of the Rocky Mountains began to rise above the ocean.

The fact that the formation of the main portion of the Appalachians took place *after* the close of the Carboniferous age is fixed, beyond all question, as Professor Rogers and others have shown, by the occurrence of the coal-beds of Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Nova Scotia among the uplifted folded rocks. The coal-beds are part of the material bent and lifted in the grand process of mountain-making, and, of course, must have been laid down before the disturbance began. The evidence has been abundantly presented elsewhere, and need not be here repeated.

As the uppermost strata of the coal formation, together with the Permian beds, are wanting in Pennsylvania, although occurring in the Mississippi basin, it is probable, as suggested elsewhere by the writer, that the epoch of uplift and disturbance had its commencement even before the Permian period began; and that from this time it continued its progress, reaching its climax when the Carboniferous age had closed.

Again, it is proved decisively that the origin of these mountains preceded the Triassic or earliest period of the Reptilian age (or, at least, the closing part of that period) by the position and nature of the Triassic or Triassic-Jurassic beds. For they lie in valleys or depressions that were made in the formation of the Appalachians; they rest unconformably on rocks that were crystallized or consolidated in the course of the Appalachian revolution; and they are largely made of *débris* from these crystalline rocks. In addition, the species of fossil plants and of Thecodont and Labyrinthodont Reptiles, whose remains or traces occur in the beds, indicate that at least the older part of the formation is Triassic.

With regard to the Rocky Mountains, it is so well known that the mass of the chain was to a large extent under the sea in the Cretaceous period, and has since been raised 5000 to 6000 feet, and that this elevation commenced before the Tertiary period, or Cenozoic time, opened, that a recital in this place of facts bearing on the point is unnecessary.

The importance of the Appalachian revolution as a time-boundary is greatly enhanced by the history of the Palæozoic era preceding it. No raising of mountains is known to have occurred in North America between the Devonian and Silurian ages; and only some limited uplifts and disturbances between the Devonian and Carboniferous. The only elevations of prominent importance during these ages, of which we have evidence, occurred either at the close of the Lower Silurian or earlier. The Green Mountains, one portion of the Appalachians, date their first emergence probably from the close of the Lower Silurian. With a few small exceptions, therefore, the long era from the Azoic to the termination of the Carboniferous age was, comparatively, one of prolonged quiet, in which oscillations of level were in progress over continental areas, but no profound and extensive disturbances. These oscillations throughout the Palæozoic had been, moreover, most profound along the Appalachian region, and the formations in progress had increased there to ten times the thickness acquired in the interior region—the whole directly preparatory for that making of the mountains which was to commence when Palæozoic time should draw to a close.*

With no great epochs of revolution to fix limits to the Silurian, and none to give bounds to the Devonian, the heights of the Appalachians loom up majestically as a time-boundary to the Palæozoic.

It is fitting that the raising of one of the two border-chains of the continent—the eastern—should thus mark one of the grandest of the transitions in geological history. The transition was as abrupt in the life of the continent and globe as in its formations; for it was the time when its ancient features were to a great extent lost:—when *Trilobites*, *Cyathophylloids*, and other old styles of corals, and the *Sigillariæ* and *Lepidodendra* of the old forests came to an end; when *Brachiopods* lost their pre-eminence among Molluscs, and *Crinoids* among Radiates, and *heterocircal Ganoids* among Fishes, and the *Lycopodium* tribe and *Calamites* among Acrogens. The transition from the Devonian to the Carboniferous presents no

such abrupt change in living tribes. More than 70 species of *coal-plants*, according to Dawson, have already been identified from the Devonian rocks of North America alone—including species of *Ferns*, *Calamites*, and *Lepidodendra* among Acrogens, and of *Sigillariæ* and *Conifers* among Gymnosperms; and some of these Devonian species, both of Acrogens and Gymnosperms, occur also, as this author has observed, among the fossil plants of the Carboniferous age.

The Reptiles of the Carboniferous age are the prominent mediæval type begun in Palæozoic time; and these were precursors of the age of Reptiles which was to follow, just as the Jurassic Mammals were precursors of the succeeding age of Mammals. It would be as right to throw the Jurassic and Cretaceous periods (or half of the Reptilian age) into the age of Mammals, on account of these precursor Mammals, as the Carboniferous age into the Reptilian, because of its Reptiles. In all history, human as well as geological, each age has its beginning, or the initiation of its great characteristic, in the age preceding.

The second of the two grandest transitions in geological history has its appropriate monument in the Rocky Mountains, the western border-chain of the continent. The Rocky-Mountain region had been undergoing changes through all previous time, like the Appalachian anterior to its elevation; for ridges of Azoic origin stand on its slopes or upper plateaus—as the Black Hills of Dacotah, and the Laramie range; and others date their origin probably from epochs in the course of the Palæozoic, and from that of the Appalachian revolution at its close:—we say *probably*, because the precise ages of the ranges along the chain have not yet been determined. But there is no doubt that the *mass* of the chain, through a large part of its area, commenced its rise, as has been stated, just before Cenozoic time began. The elevation was not completed at once, but continued in progress, as the investigations of Hayden have shown, through much of the Tertiary period.

On the eastern border of the continent, only one epoch of profound disturbance *during the progress* of Mesozoic time (or the Reptilian age) has been distinguished—namely, that when the Triassic-Jurassic formation underwent displacement, and the trap ridges and dykes that are associated with it were formed in Nova Scotia, the Connecticut valley, the Palisade region of New York and New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina. This subordinate epoch of disturbance divides off the period of these Triassic-Jurassic beds from that of the Cretaceous formation.

At the close of the Mesozoic there was some elevation of the continent on this same *eastern* border, but it was small in amount, compared with that on the *western*.*

The destruction of life closing Mesozoic time was as comprehensive and complete in North America, according to present knowledge, as that closing the Palæozoic. Investigation with reference to this point has already extended over so wide a region, that the fact may be regarded as quite well established. The exceptions that we have most reason to look for are those of oceanic fishes; for these species might have escaped the destroying agency (whether of climate and change of level, or the latter alone) which was in action over the continents and along the ocean's shallow borders.†

It is, then, evident that in North America the two boldest transitions in the course of the Zoic ages correspond with the raising of the mountain chains of the two oceanic borders. Thus time and geography are brought into direct parallelism.

Looking now abroad, we find evidence that the fact, here established as regards North America, has the universality of a fundamental truth or principle.

The epoch of the Appalachian revolution was not only a grand epoch in American history, but also in European. For the greatest disturbances over the continent, and the most extensive metamorphic changes, after those which preceded the Upper Silurian, appear to date from the time between the Carboniferous and Triassic periods, either at the beginning or close of the Permian period. Murchison remarks, concerning the epoch following the Carboniferous, that it was then

* The essential conformability of the Cretaceous and Tertiary beds along part of the Atlantic and Gulf Borders shows that even the most abrupt epochal transitions in geological history are not accompanied everywhere by disturbances of stratification and cases of unconformability. It is hence no objection to closing the Carboniferous age with the Permian, that the Permian beds and the Triassic in some parts of the world are conformable.

† Dr. J. Leidy has questioned, in conversation with the writer, whether the teeth of sharks from the American Cretaceous, that are undistinguishable from some of the Tertiary teeth, belong to distinct species or not. The point is not easily settled, since the teeth in these species often afford unsatisfactory specific characters.

* This paper is contributed to the last number of *Silliman's Journal* by Mr. James H. Dana. Its grasp is so great, and the generalizations and facts which it contains are so interesting to both old and new world geologists, that we print it at full length.

† Professor Agassiz, in a recent paper in the *Atlantic Monthly*, places the close of the Palæozoic after the Devonian. In the writer's view, the whole bearing of the science is against any such new arrangement of the geological ages.

* See the writer's article on American Geological History, *Silliman's Journal*, xxi. 305, 1856.

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"that the coal-strata and their antecedent formations were very generally broken up, and thrown by grand upheavals into separate basins, which were fractured by numberless powerful dislocations." The formation of the main part of the Ural chain—the mountains on the eastern border of Europe (dividing the Orient into its eastern and western portion)—has been referred to this time.

Again, the epoch of the elevation of the Rocky Mountains was similarly eminent in European history. From the Triassic onward to the middle or later Cretaceous, there had been in Europe only oscillations of level, and relatively small uplifts or disturbances. The elevation of the range of the Côte d'Or and Cevennes in France, and of the Erzgebirge in Saxony, all north-easterly in course, has been referred to the interval between the Jurassic and Cretaceous periods. But, when Mesozoic time was drawing to its close, then commenced the elevation of the Alps, Apennines, and other heights of this western border of the Orient (for these mountains belong to the border-region of the Orient just as the Rocky Mountains do to that of the Occident, and are not as far distant as the latter from the adjoining ocean). The raising of these mountains, like that of the mountains of western America, was completed in the course of the Tertiary period.

Some of the loftiest ranges of Europe, and also of Asia, were lifted to their places after the Eocene had begun—as if the close of the Cretaceous period were less important as a mountain-making epoch than a later era, and as if Mesozoic time, in order to terminate against the grandest mountain elevations, should be continued to the middle or later Eocene. But the transition in kinds of life which accompanied the transition in time from the Cretaceous to the Tertiary shows that the close of the former was, in fact, the prominent epoch of physical change over the globe, notwithstanding the changes of level which subsequently took place. An early step in those changes that were introductory to Cenozoic time appears to have been that which, on both continents, was attended with most universal effects. Mountains, as is now well known, have not been made by single heavings of the earth's crust, as waves may be thrown up on the ocean, but are results of a slow, long-continued, and often intermitted action. And, as the Appalachians were in preparation during the Carboniferous age, and probably occupied in their formation the Permian period, so the Rocky Mountains, Alps, and other heights, while initiated long before, finally commenced their grand movements upward as the Reptilian age was terminating, to end them only with the lapse of the Tertiary.

There are thus two specially prominent periods of mountain-making in Europe, as in America, and they are directly connected with the two grand transitions in the life of the world, that of the Palæozoic to the Mesozoic, and that of the Mesozoic to the Cenozoic.*

Asia probably affords similar facts. The two opposing mountain chains of most prominence are the Altai on the north, and the Himalayas on the south. Jurassic rocks occur in the Himalayas, on the northern or Thibet side, to a height of from 14,000 to 18,000 feet, according to Strachey, and extend probably through a length of 400 miles. The elevation of the mountains, according to this author, must have taken place in mass, and subsequently to the Jurassic period. The absence of Cretaceous rocks appears to indicate that some slight emergence, at least, existed during the Cretaceous period. With regard to the exact time of the main part of the elevation, the evidence is not yet satisfactory. It is, however, certain that the western portion, in which Cashmere lies, was still 15,000 feet below its present level in the early Eocene; and the elevation, whenever commenced, was completed throughout the chain, like that of the Alps and Apennines, only after the Tertiary period had begun. Thus the progress was gradual; and it covered the same part of geological time as that of the loftier mountains of America and Europe. As above remarked, the great transition in the life of the globe which took place at the close of the Cretaceous shows that, notwithstanding the prolonging of the era of elevation, there was a crisis in the movement, climate and otherwise, at the close of Mesozoic time. The great physical changes in progress then made their profoundest mark on the world's history.

* The only other epoch or epochs of like eminence indicated in the North American rocks pertain to Azic time; at its close, and perhaps at distant epochs preceding, there were mountains made and sedimentary strata, thousands of feet in thickness, folded and crystallized, the latter on a scale not afterwards equalled, unless at the close of the Palæozoic or Mesozoic eras.

In South America there is proof, as Darwin has shown, that the Andes were, to a large extent, raised from the ocean after the close of the Mesozoic. The elevation was not completed at once, any more than that of the Rocky Mountains or Alps, but continued afterwards to increase at intervals, while undergoing oscillations, during the subsequent Tertiary period.* The Rocky Mountains and Andes were one, apparently, in time of origin, as they are one in position along the American continent.

Is it not then probable that over all the continents the making of the border-mountains—the chains which give the land its dominant features, or rather which are its features—corresponds as in America with the two grandest epochs in the geological past, or, in other words, gives bounds to Palæozoic and Mesozoic time?

The uplifting of these mountain regions was produced, as the writer has illustrated elsewhere, by lateral movements in the earth's crust, and mainly in those parts of it that make the bed of the ocean. And, as the Atlantic bed stretches from America to Europe, and the Pacific from America to Asia, there is no violence to reason in supposing that the profound movements which originated the lofty border-chains of one continent should have acted simultaneously (although it may have been very unequally) at the two sides of the oceanic basins, and thus have produced world-wide results. If so, we have a universal cause for simultaneous universal effects. There is evidence that, in the case of some of the minor oscillations, there were synchronous parallel movements in the North American and European continents;—as in the formation of marine limestones alike on the two continents in the Subcarboniferous period; in the accumulation of the strata of Millstone grit or coarse sandstone over these limestones; in the slight emergence of the continents, and their oscillations below and above the sea-level during the Carboniferous period, resulting in successive great marshes for coal-making vegetation; and, again, in the simultaneous northern change of level of the Glacial epoch. If distant lands, as these examples prove, moved in sympathy during some of the inferior vibrations of the crust, surely we may look for synchronous action during the raising of the greatest of its mountains. The earth has moved as a unit in all its grander steps of progress.

In view of such facts it is nothing surprising or improbable that the subdivision of time into Palæozoic, Mesozoic and Cenozoic should be registered in the strongest lineaments of the earth's surface.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

THE *Séance Publique* of the French Academy was held on the 28th inst. We must defer our account of it till next week, contenting ourselves with the notice of it which appears in another column.

WE give the following ephemeris of Comet IV. from the *Astronomische Nachrichten*: it is calculated for Berlin mean noon from Engelmann's elements:—

| | | |
|----------|---------------|---------------|
| T. | 1863. | Dec. 2921669. |
| π | 183° 8' 9" 9" | Mean Equinox |
| ω | 105 1 53.7 | 1864. |
| i | 83 18 57.9 | |
| log. q | 0.118282 | |
| Motion | Direct. | |

EPHEMERIS.

| 1864. | H. | M. | S. | " | " |
|-----------|----------|------|----|---|---|
| January 5 | 18 11 14 | 5+32 | 50 | 7 | |
| 10 | 18 28 31 | 30 | 42 | 4 | |
| 15 | 18 43 42 | 28 | 43 | 4 | |
| 20 | 18 57 5 | 26 | 54 | 4 | |
| 25 | 19 9 1 | 25 | 14 | 8 | |
| 30 | 19 19 43 | +23 | 44 | 3 | |

A MEMOIR, in which some novel conclusions are arrived at, is put forth by M. Salvatore Trinchese respecting the structure of the nervous system of Gasteropodous Mollusca. Having remarked on the prevalent ignorance of the fact whether the various medullary ganglia which form the œsophageal ring all present the same structure, or whether each of them is peculiarly constituted, he took as types for his observations the *Helix pomatia*, *Arion rufus*, and *Limæus stagnalis*. He states that in each of these, on examining the nervous centres, he found round or pear-shaped celluli of variable size, enclosed in a thick sheath of connective tissue; small celluli, irregularly triangular in shape, round which no such sheath can be detected; and free ganglia or myelocytes similar to those which are recognisable in the grey substance

* See, on the extensive distribution of Cretaceous or Cretaceous-colitic beds in the Andes, and on the elevation of these mountains, Darwin "On South America," pp. 238, 239, and elsewhere; also Dr. Forbes, *Q. J. Geol. Soc.*, 1861, p. 7.

of the cerebrospinal system of vertebrata. Amongst these animals no apolar or unipolar celluli can be discovered, whilst bipolar ones are exceedingly rare. Four prolongations are usually presented by the celluli, each cell sending a prolongation to each of the cells which surrounds it; whilst these prolongations enclose others, which communicate with celluli more or less distant. The two cerebroïd ganglia, in their upper regions, are composed of large round celluli, and also of pear-shaped celluli. In the garden snail and the red slug M. Trinchese conceives that he has detected four small ganglia, equivalent to those which have been termed accessory cerebroïd ganglia, concealed under the cerebral envelopes. The two external of these ganglia should be termed "optic," as the optic nerves arise from them. They are composed of free nuclei, and of nervous fibres arising from the forepart of the cerebral masses. The two inner ganglia differ exceedingly from these "optic lobes," and are composed of enormous cells compressed against each other. M. Trinchese also points out histological differences in the pedal or abdominal ganglion, and notes the fact that the peripheral nerves are formed of very fine tubes, resembling in the constitution of the sheaths of their nuclei the superior animals in an embryonic state. The singular manner in which they terminate in the muscles is accomplished as follows—the nervous element, when it arrives at the muscular fibre, losing its own sheath, whilst the cylindrax alone penetrates the muscle, dividing into two very slender filaments. These are inserted contrariwise, each traversing half of the muscular fibre, and terminating in a fine point at its further extremity. M. Trinchese brings forward experiments to demonstrate this curious fact, and concludes his memoir with the following results:—1st. That the nervous system of mollusca is composed of the same elements as that of the vertebrate animals; 2nd. That the various medullary nuclei of the œsophageal ring have a different structure; 3rd. That amongst the types where the centralization of the medullary nuclei is the most pronounced, their fusion is only accomplished near the middle of the pedal ganglion, in the upper and lower regions of which the nuclei are separate; 4th. That the nervous element penetrates into the interior of the smooth muscular fibres of these animals, where it terminates in a point. It will be most interesting to ascertain if these researches by M. Trinchese are conformable in their results with those of other observers; and, whatever may be the result of this investigation, it is exceedingly fortunate that the system of minute analysis which Mr. Albany Hancock has long applied to the *Cephalopoda* is now being worked out amongst the land and fresh-water gasteropodous mollusca. Other observers may peradventure examine the large and important field which M. Trinchese has passed over *sub silentio*; and a minute histological investigation of the nervous structure of marine gasteropoda, which as yet he appears to have disregarded, will, no doubt, be productive of interesting results.

THE Paris basin again furnishes us with a bed containing evidences of gigantic pachyderms of the same nature as those which Cuvier described in his great *Ossements Fossiles*. Jouy, near Aisne, is this time the seat of a discovery by M. Watelet, who has there obtained evidences of *Lophiodon*. He takes this opportunity of casting a retrospective glance over the present state of our systematic knowledge of the genus, and, after reviewing the labours of Cuvier, De Blainville, Hébert, and Gervais, proposes the following species, with the recorded enumeration of the specimens:—

1. *Lophiodon* or *Tapirotherium*. Issel. (1. One mandible, almost entire, in its two horizontal rami; 2. A fragment of upper jaw, right side; 3. A portion of the upper part of the femur.)
2. *L. occitanicum*. Issel. (There has only been figured the lower head of tibia; there are, nevertheless, known a portion of lower jaw with teeth, and an upper head of femur, but unfigured.)
3. *L. isselense*. Issel. (1. A fragment of mandible with last molar in place; 2. An intermediate tooth with fragment of mandible; 3. The articular head of scapula; 4. The outer half of the astragalus.)
4. *L. tapiroides*. Buchsweiler. (1. Anterior extremity of right mandible; 2. A small fragment of right maxillary, with the two last molars.)
5. *L. buxovillanum*. Buchsweiler. (1. Many fragments of mandible with molar teeth, one of them showing three in a series; 2. A fragment of maxillary with a series of three molars in place.)
6. *L. giganteum*. Orleans. (1. A fragment of mandible, with a worn and broken tooth; 2. An astragalus of the left side.)
7. *L. aurelianense*. Orleans. (The only figured pieces are two lower extremities of the humerus.)
8. *L. medium*. Argenton. (1. A lower jaw; 2. Several canines; 3. The lower head of tibia; 4. A portion of cubitus.)

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9. *L. minus*. Argenton. (1. A lower jaw; 2. Several canines; 3. Lower head of tibia; 4. Portion of cubitus.)
10. *L. minimum*. Argenton. (1. A left upper molar; 2. A penultimate tooth of the lower jaw; 3. A canine; 4. A fragment of cubitus; 5. A fragment of the lower head of femur; 6. Two portions of metatarsal bones.)
11. *L. ?* Argenton. (Two germs of molars.)
12. *L. monspessulanum*. Montpellier. (1. Two worn intermediate teeth; 2. An anterior molar; 3. Two sharp and arcuated canines.)
13. *L. lautricense*. Noulet. Lautrec. (Large portion of lower jaw, with traces of three pairs of incisors; one pair of strong canines, with the crown arched, and several molars.)
14. *L. parisiense*. Robert. Nanterre. (M. Gervais has figured many specimens of this species. The Paris Museum possesses a fine lower jaw almost complete.)
15. M. Gervais has cited as belonging to Lophiodons of indeterminate species two molar teeth, figured by De Blainville, and found at Cuise, and one upper molar found at Gentilly.
16. Several other fragments have also been found in other parts of Europe, but they are not sufficiently characteristic to be identified with certainty as Lophiodont.

This little conspectus of the present state of our knowledge of this genus is most interesting, as it places at our disposal a complete retrospect of our existing information, which has not been given in so lucid a form since the publication of *Fischer's Synopsis Mammalium* in the year 1830.

SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Editor of THE READER.

SIR,—Your correspondent Mr. J. Beete Jukes, in his letter in your last number, under the head of "Geological Nomenclature," says, "That there was a difference in the sound of κ and χ or the corresponding c and ch , seems evident from the quizzing that *Martial* gives a provincial in his day for pronouncing 'commodum' as if it was 'chommodum.'"

I think, however, in referring to his books, Mr. Jukes will find himself in error in attributing to *Martial* the lines which Catullus wrote on a certain Arrius, commencing—

"Chommoda dicebat, si quando commoda vellet
Dicere, et 'hinsidias' Arrius insidias,"

and ending—

"Jam non Ionios esse, sed 'Hionios.'"

From this I am of opinion that the χ or ch had the value of the Hebrew \aleph cheth, and was pronounced as if it were written c hard or k , followed by a sheva or very short e before the h , which was strongly aspirated. Thus, "chommoda" from the mouth of Arrius would have sounded as if it were written "kehommoda."

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

T. G. MARGARY.

6, Victoria Street, Westminster,
21st Dec., 1863.

PROCEEDINGS OF FOREIGN ACADEMIES.

Societe Chimique de Paris, July—Nov.—THE following papers were read:—Willm—"Researches on the Compounds of Thallium" (continuation). Pasteur—"On the Disengagement of Sulphuretted Hydrogen and Deposition of Sulphur which takes place on passing a Current of Sulphurous Acid through a Solution of Protochloride of Tin." Kosmann—"Researches on Aloes." Monnoyer—"On the Action of Nitric Acid on Camphor, showing the identity of the New Acid of M. Blumenau with Anhydrous Camphic Acid." Friedel—"On the Displacement of one Alcohol by another in an Ether." Claire-Deville—"An Account of M. Bahr's Researches on Wadium." Wurtz—"On the Action of Hydriodic Acid on Brominated Ethylene and on Allyl." M. Friedel presented an account from M. Crafts "On a Product obtained by the Action of Sulphuretted Potassium on Bromide of Ethylene." M. Bouis presented a pamphlet from M. de Luynes on "The Commercial Preparation of Orcine." M. Bouis, on the part of M. Boutelet, presented a memoir "On some of the more simple Organic Compounds," a paper "On Organic Radicles," and another entitled "Contributions to the History of the Organo-Metallic Compounds."

Academie des Sciences, Dec. 21.—The following memoirs and communications were read:—Hermite—"On the Theory of Elliptic Functions." Marshal Vaillant—"On the Storms of the 2nd and 3rd December." Gervais—"On a New Genus of Ichthyodorulite." Garrigon, Martin, and Trutat—"On Two Fragments of Human Jaw-Bones found in the Cavern of Bruniquel." Scheurer-Kestner—"Theoretical Researches on the Preparation of Soda by Leblanc's Process." Piesse—"On Azulene." Basset—"On the Transformations of Primordial Cells." Fonteneau—"On the

Systems of Corresponding Coördinates." St.-Cricq Casaux—"On Consanguineous Alliances." Guérin—"Agricultural Statistics of the Canton of Benfeld (Bas-Rhin)." Casorati—"On Functions with Multiple Periods." De la Prevostaye—"On the question, Do divers bodies become luminous at the same Temperature?" De Caligny—"On some Old Water-Wheels." Plateau—Reply to M. Chevreul's remarks made at the preceding séance. Maumené—"On the Action of Oxygen on Wine, and on the Distillation of Mixed Liquids."

Mr. Lawrence was elected a correspondent in the Surgical Section, *vice* the late Sir B. Brodie.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

Royal Society, Dec. 12. Major-General Sabine, President, in the chair.—THE papers read were as follows:—"First Analysis of 177 Magnetic Storms, registered by the Magnetic Instruments in the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, from 1841 to 1857." By G. B. Airy, Esq., Astronomer-Royal. We shall return to this communication.

"On the Sudden Squalls of 30th October and 21st November, 1863." By Balfour Stewart, F.R.S.—The barograph at the Kew Observatory, superintended by Mr. Stewart, records a very rapid fall in the pressure of the atmosphere, which appears to have reached its lowest point about 3h. 9m. p.m., G. M. T. At this moment, from some cause, probably a very violent gust of wind, the gas-lights in the room which contained the barograph went out, and were again re-lit in a quarter of an hour. During this interval the barometer had risen considerably, and indeed the barograph curve, although unfortunately incomplete, presents the appearance of an extremely rapid rise. It may therefore, perhaps, be supposed that there was a very sudden increase of pressure, accompanied with a violent gust of wind, at the moment when the gas went out, which would be about 3h. 9m. p.m., as above stated. In Mr. Glaisher's previous communication relative to this squall, it was remarked that it was felt at Greenwich an hour after it was recorded by the Oxford instruments, and long after it was barometrically indicated in Ireland, as we learnt from a letter read by Admiral Fitzroy in the course of the discussion. These facts, which would indicate an easterly transit of the squall, are borne out by the Kew observations; for, while the time at Oxford was 2h. 30m., at Kew it was 3h. 9m., and at Greenwich 3h. 30m. In other words, leaving Ireland out of the question, the long crest of the squall-wave, which caused such devastation, took 39 minutes to pass over the difference of longitude between Oxford and Kew, and 23 more that between Kew and Greenwich.

In the case of the squall on the 21st Nov., the barograph presents a rapid, and (in the curve) ragged fall of the atmospheric pressure, which reached its minimum about 4h. 45m. p.m. There was then a very abrupt and nearly perpendicular rise of about five-hundredths of an inch of pressure, or rather less, after which the rise still went on, but only more gradually. A very sudden rise of nearly the same extent as that at Kew took place at Oxford about four o'clock, and therefore, as on the previous occasion, somewhat sooner than at Kew. This change of pressure at Oxford was accompanied by a very rapid fall of temperature of about 8° Fahr. The minimum atmospheric pressure at Kew was 29.52 in., while at Oxford it was 29.28 in.

Mr. Stewart's paper dealt with another class of observations, of great interest and value, which are now undertaken at Kew by the help of Professor Thomson's self-registering electrometer; and this, which we believe is the first notice of its performance, has revealed to us an influence exerted by the weather described upon the electricity of the air. The indications of the Kew self-recording electrometer during this squall show that about 2h. 39m. p.m., the electricity of the air, which before that time had been very slightly negative, became rapidly positive, then quickly crossed to negative, became positive again, and once more crossed to negative about 3h. 3m. p.m., recrossing again from strong negative about 3h. 51m. p.m., after which it settled down into somewhat strong positive. It is well, however, to state that the variations of this instrument between 3h. 3m. p.m. and 3h. 51m. p.m. were so rapid as not to be well impressed upon the paper. During the second squall the electricity of the air fell rapidly from positive to negative about 4h. 30m. p.m., and afterwards fluctuated a good deal, remaining, however, generally negative until 5h. 22m. p.m., when it rose rapidly to positive. It would appear that in both these squalls there was an exceedingly rapid rise of the

barometer from its minimum both at Oxford and at Kew, this taking place somewhat sooner in the former place than in the latter; and that in both cases the air at Kew remained negatively electrified during the continuance of the squall, while the average velocity of the wind was also somewhat increased.

Geological Society, Dec. 16. R. A. G. Godwin-Austen, Esq., V.P., in the chair. A. L. Adams, M.D. 22nd Regiment; J. M. Hosier, Esq., Lieutenant 2nd Life Guards, Staff College, Sandhurst; and J. F. Iselin, Esq., Inspector of Science Schools, were elected Fellows.—THE following communications were read:—1. "On the Pebble-bed of Budleigh Salterton." By W. Vicary, Esq., F.G.S., with Notes on the Fossils, by J. W. Salter, Esq., F.G.S.—The south coast of Devonshire, from Petit Tor, near Babbacombe Bay, to a little beyond Sidmouth, exhibits cliffs of New Red Sandstone, one of the beds of which, near Budleigh Salterton, is composed of pebbles of all sizes and of a flattened, oval form; this bed attains a maximum thickness of about 100 feet, and some of the pebbles composing it were found by Mr. Vicary to contain peculiar fossils. Mr. Vicary gave a description of the physical features of the area over which the pebble-bed extends, and entered into the stratigraphical details of this and the associated strata, referring to Mr. Salter's Note for information upon the affinities of the fossils. In his Note, Mr. Salter observed that, on comparing the fossils of the Budleigh Salterton pebbles with those from the Caen sandstone in the Society's Museum, he found that all the species contained in the latter collection were also represented in the former. The general aspect of the fossils was stated to be quite unlike that exhibited by English Lower Silurian collections; and Mr. Salter therefore suggested that the exact equivalent of the Caen sandstone does not exist in England. This difference in the two faunas appeared to him to favour the theory of the former existence of a barrier between the middle and northern European regions during the Silurian period.

2. "Experimental Researches on the Granites of Ireland.—Part IV. On the Granites and Syenites of Donegal, with some remarks on those of Scotland and Sweden." By the Rev. Samuel Haughton, M.D., F.R.S.—The author discussed in detail the mineralogical composition of each of the fifteen Donegal granites, and described the method usually employed by him in solving lithologico-chemical problems, coming to the conclusion that nearly half of these granites are not composed altogether of the four minerals (quartz, orthoclase, oligoclase, and black mica) which are found in them in distinct crystals, and that the remaining varieties, even if they be composed of these minerals, must have a paste composed of the same minerals, but with a slightly different composition. Professor Haughton then discussed the composition of the syenites of Donegal, and instituted a comparison between the granites of that district and those of Scotland and Sweden, remarking that those of the last-named region have the same stratified structure as the granites of Donegal.

3. "On the Recent Earthquake at Manila." By J. W. Farren, Esq. Communicated by the Foreign Office.—In two letters to Earl Russell the author described the damage done by this earthquake, observing that 289 persons were killed, and a large number more or less injured.

4. "Extracts from letters relating to the further discovery of Fossil Teeth and Bones of Reptiles in Central India." By the late Rev. S. Hislop. Communicated by Prof. T. Rupert Jones, F.G.S.—The remains alluded to consist of (1) a series of reptilian bones, some bearing teeth, mostly Labyrinthodont, and some probably Dicynodont, from the (Triassic?) red clay of Maledi, in which teeth of *Ceratodus* occur; and (2) several teeth similar to one from the Eocene clays of Takli, near Nagpore, and another like a conical tooth from the Eocene beds (with *Physa Prinsepian*) of Physura, from the same neighbourhood as that in which the set No. 1 was found. At Phisdura (Tertiary) large reptilian bones (including a femur 1 foot across at the condyles, and a vertebral centrum 7 inches across) have been found associated with large coprolites, *Physa Prinsepian*, and *Paludina Deccanensis*. Mr. Hislop stated his belief that the Mangali beds, the Korhadi shales, and the red clay of Maledi should be placed above the plant-bearing beds of Nagpore instead of below them, as heretofore supposed.

Anthropological Society, Dec. 15. Dr. Hunt, President, in the chair.—THE papers read were as follow:—"On Crystal Quartz-Cutting Instruments of the Ancient Inhabitants of

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Chanduy (near Guayaquil in South America) found by Mr. Spruce." By Clements R. Markham, Sec. R.G.S.—"The three ancient cutting instruments of the former inhabitants of Chanduy, at the mouth of the river Guayaquil in South America, exhibited are chips of transparent quartz crystal. One of them is broken. These crystal lance-heads and knives are found all over the country, from the point of Santa Elena to the town of Guayaquil; but it is near the latter place that they occur in greater abundance, chiefly on certain low mounds laid bare by the winter rains. A French apothecary named Reyre took scores of them to Paris a few years ago. The present specimens were found by Mr. Spruce near the little town of Chanduy on the sea-shore, in middings or refuse heaps similar to those in Denmark. These middings consist chiefly of fragments of pottery, and of sea-shells of four species—an oyster, a mussel, a cockle, and a large heavy bivalve, beautifully fluted and with a remarkably thick beveled edge, called by the inhabitants *fué de burro*. The latter shell is not now found on the coast near Chanduy. The formation of the land near Chanduy is precisely the same as that of the coast of Peru—land recently upraised from the sea—the uppermost strata being shell marl, lower down calcareous grit, but all containing only recent shells. The point to which I would wish to draw attention, in regard to these quartz-cutting instruments, is that the people of this country, when the Spaniards first discovered it, were using bronze-cutting instruments. That mentioned by Humboldt, as having been found near Cuzco, is composed of metal containing 0.94 of copper and 0.06 of tin; and, in describing it, he remarks that everywhere in the old continent, also, at the beginning of the civilization of nations, the use of copper mixed with tin (*χαλκος*) prevailed over that of iron. The old inhabitants of South America, at the time of the Spanish conquest, were therefore passing through their age of bronze, and had not yet entered upon their age of iron. In the present state of our information it would be unprofitable to discuss their origin, but they may fairly be considered to have been indigenous to the American continent—to be, by many ages, a younger race than any of those in the old world, and to have been, by slow, unsteady steps, working their way towards a higher civilization when the Spanish invasion suddenly destroyed their separate existence. Three centuries ago, then, they were in a stage of development analogous to that through which the old-world races had passed many centuries earlier, and which is now called the *bronze age*. But these quartz crystals seem to prove that, at some much earlier period, when the refuse heaps of Chanduy were made, there had been a *stone age* preceding the *bronze age* of the South Americans, just in the same order as these successive epochs are believed to have occurred in the history of the European races; and it is from this circumstance that, I believe, any interest which may be attached to these relics will arise. That the skill and taste of these people, the inhabitants of the coast near Guayaquil, and of the neighbouring islands of Puna and Muerto, were far from contemptible at the latter date is proved by a very interesting discovery made on the latter island about three years ago, an account of which has been sent me by Mr. Spruce. The remains which were then found would certainly indicate no mean degree of civilization, and I propose to conclude this paper by a very brief account of one or two of them. It will show to what point the descendants of the chippers of quartz crystal had attained when they were overwhelmed by the Spanish conquest. One of the objects was a small statue, six or eight inches high, of pure gold, and very creditably sculptured. But by far the most curious was an ornament consisting of several thin plates, almost like a lady's muslin collar in size and shape, and covered with figures. One of these ornaments has perhaps a hundred figures of pelicans, the sacred bird of these people according to the local tradition. Every figure represents the bird in a different attitude; and, as they have been stamped, not engraved, a separate die must have been used for each figure. They are all of gold, but some of them with a considerable alloy of silver."

"Notes upon the Discovery of Mammalian Bones cut and sawn by Implements of Flint at Audley End, Essex." By George E. Roberts.—"In the course of railway works between Audley End and Saffron Walden it became necessary to divert the course of the River Cam into a part of the meadow land bounding the stream which was traditionally known as 'the old river bed.' A cutting about 20 feet deep through this—necessitated for the foundations of a wide and large culvert, to give

passage to the river through the railway embankment—disclosed a section of ground at the river Cam of soil, clay, peat, and gravel. Near the bottom of the peat, and at a depth from surface of 16 feet, an astonishing quantity of mammalian bones was found. Mr. Hanson, the contractor of the line, informed me that, out of the excavation—an area of not more than 20 feet by 60—two cartloads of 'large bones' were taken away and sold to be converted into bone manure! I am exceedingly sorry that earlier information of this discovery did not reach me, and that no competent person made an examination of these bones before they were thus turned to a practical agricultural account. Evidently the deposit, with its organic contents, is one which has accumulated in the river-bed both by ordinary current action and during flood-time. Neither do I think it can be of any antiquity beyond from 2000 to 3000 years.

"The bones which bear the artificially-made markings are the lower jaws of a small ox, probably *Bos longifrons*, though I am not aware of any remains of this well-known species having been found so small in size. From examination of the skull it would appear also that this individual was hornless. The markings upon the lower jaws are of two kinds: broad saw-cuts, extending in two series of connected markings from the upper end of the coronoid process to the angle of the jaw, and, in one well-marked example, upon the opposite side of the bone, near the broad outer end of the condyle; and (upon the other jaw) one deep cut, having clean edges, the result of the removal of a long and thin slice of bone by two cuts just below the condyle. Another portion of bone, part of the shaft of a tibia (?), also exhibits cuts, and, as suggested to me by Dr. Falconer, bears evidence of having been split by the introduction of a chisel-shaped tool, it being impressed with such a marking as would be made by an instrument of this kind, driven wedge-wise, into the bone. Upon the broad end of a rib (also of *Bos*) a saw-cut also appears. The whole of these cuts are undoubtedly as old as the bones themselves, the surface of the depressions caused by the removal of the pieces of bone being coloured of a brown tint corresponding with the colour of the bone. When these bones reached me they were covered with the peaty clay, in removing which (a process done very carefully by myself) the cuts became exposed. Dr. Falconer examined the whole of the bones before they were washed, and first detected the two parallel lines of broad cuts upon the one jaw while in their uncleaned condition. One of the jaws has been extensively gnawn by small carnivores, the inferior outline being broken, and the sides of the fracture scored with teeth-markings.

"A single tooth of badger (?) was found at the same level in the cutting. I regret that my search among the thousands of flint-flakes contained in the deposit for any which could be considered as artificially formed was unsuccessful, not a single one occurring which could be referred to human handicraft. My companion, Mr. Middleton, also searched, with no better result.

"A remarkably fine horn of the great elk, *Cervus Megaceros*, was also found in association with these bones; I believe this was saved, and is now owned by a Mr. Woods, a farmer near Saffron Walden. The basis of my opinion that the cuts and sawings upon the bones were produced by flint implements, is their dissimilarity from markings which would be made by iron or bronze weapons upon such a material. I am supported in my belief that these incised markings and scrapings were made by an edge of flint by Mr. Christy, who has studied these bones long and carefully. He detects in the delicate ribs left upon the surface of the scoring by a flint edge the peculiar curve in the direction of the rib which corresponds with the curved outline of the edge, and which he has found existing in all cuts and sawings made upon bone by implements of flint."

"On some Flint Arrow-heads from Canada." By Frederic Royston Fairbank, Esq., Loc. Sec. A.S.L.—"The arrow-heads which accompanied the paper, and are now in the museum of the Society, were ploughed up in one of the valleys along the shores of Lake Erie, Canada. They were lying in the mould a few inches from the surface, and appeared to have been covered by sediment washed by the rain, and by the overflowing of a small stream from the sides of the hills skirting the valley. Similar implements are found scattered over most of the valleys in that locality. It is believed that they were formed and used by the Eries, a tribe of Indians who, numerous in 1623, when visited by Father Joseph de la Roche d'Allyon, were exterminated in less than thirty years from that date

by constant and sanguinary strife with their kinsmen the Hurons, Petuns, and Neuters, and also with the powerful Iroquois, their common enemy. We need not, then, be surprised that the weapons which they used are found in great numbers. The makers of them may be considered to have been much on a par with the inhabitants of Europe during the early and middle portions of the stone age.

"On the Vitality of the Coloured People in the United States according to the Census." By Count Oscar Reichenbach.—This paper was composed of statistical tables, compiled with great care, the following being the author's conclusions:—"Without the intervention of political commotions, and without the possibility and development of a sectional policy, slavery would have taken a course to emancipation by states. An orderly and peaceable emancipation would cause a decrease of the coloured races in the North; for there they do not naturally increase, and there would not be any more emigrants manumitted and fugitives augmenting them; on the contrary, some would emigrate to the South, where climate, economical conditions, and society are somewhat more congenial. In fifty years hardly any coloured would be found in the present Northern States, and over the whole extent of the country their number would probably not amount to more than 9,000,000, a number more likely to decrease than to increase from that time forward, from causes still more powerful than those operating for the transmutation of people in Ireland."

"On some Arrow-heads and other Implements of Quartz and Flint from the Bin of Cullen, (Elginshire)." Extracted from letters received from Alexander Bryson, F.R.S.E., &c., by George E. Roberts.—"About a mile from Cullen House, in a north-western direction, lies the great manufactory of flint arrow-heads and spear-heads, where probably the 'ancient arrow-maker' held out a way-side sign. However this may be, nothing is to be found within an area of twenty yards square but flint-flakes. I have met with hundreds, but with only one finished arrow-head, which is the small one exhibited. Finished arrow and spear heads are abundant round this 'workshop,' and are often turned up by the plough. They have been also found at a somewhat greater depth. Mr. Cristy recognises in the white quartz lance-head a *North American* form, and comments upon it as one probably new to the British Islands."

Society of Antiquaries, Dec. 17. Augustus W. Franks, Esq., director, in the chair.—MR. CHRISTIE exhibited a skull found at St. Acheul in a bed of earth overlying the gravel bed in which the celebrated flint implements have been found. The relative position of the strata was shown by a diagram. The skull was found at the bottom of a well-formed grave, the perpendicular walls of which showed that, at the time of its being dug, the stratum was in a perfectly firm and coherent state. The skull was remarkable from the fact of a coin being found placed over each eye. One of these proved to be a coin of Magnentius, and the date of the inhumation was thus fixed towards the close of the fourth century.

Mr. Goodwin read a second paper upon hieratic papyri of the 12th dynasty. After some general remarks upon the method employed in deciphering the hieroglyphic and hieratic texts, and of the process of induction by which the meaning of unknown words is arrived at, Mr. Goodwin proceeded to describe two papyri containing a legend of one of the earliest Egyptian dynasties, probably the third. The story is that of a farmer who is oppressed by the steward of the property upon which he lives, who wrongfully takes from him one of his oxen or asses for a trivial cause. The farmer appeals to the squire, who sends a confidential servant to inquire into the facts of the case. The farmer then makes a long speech, begging that right may be done him. The squire reports the affair to the king, Nebkara, who directs him to make trial of the farmer by causing his house to be pulled down, and putting him upon a short allowance—three loaves and two pots of beer a day for his whole family. The farmer remonstrates strongly against this harsh proceeding, and reproaches the squire with being himself a party to the original wrong. Ten long speeches are preserved, to which the squire listens without replying, having been ordered by the king to say nothing, but to put the whole down in writing for consideration. At the end of the tenth speech the farmer is thirsty, and asks for water, and the manuscript shortly breaks off, leaving it in doubt what the termination was. The story cannot be considered historical, but was composed for the sake of introducing the farmer's

orations in favour of justice. The last papyrus described contained only a fragment of a somewhat poetical composition, resembling much the early Christian stories of martyrdom. A prisoner, threatened with torture and death, boldly defies his judge, tormenting him with his own mortality, proclaiming his own fearlessness of death, and his firm confidence of obtaining righteous judgment in the other world. A sort of parable follows, picturing the vicissitudes of life, and describing a man who, while rejoicing in his prosperity, has his children devoured by a crocodile. He curses his own name in a series of verses, and these are succeeded by another set, in which the praise of Ra, the sun, is set forth, and eternal right vindicated. The end of this piece is preserved; but the termination is abrupt, and does not show what the beginning of the story was.

Institution of Civil Engineers, Dec. 15. J. Hawkshaw, Esq., President, in the chair.—*Annual General Meeting.*—In the interval that had elapsed since the last Annual General Meeting the progress of the Institution has been eminently satisfactory. The papers read at the meetings had been numerous and varied; the meetings themselves had been very fully attended; the library had received considerable accessions, both by donations and by purchases; the number of members had steadily increased, and the funds were in a prosperous condition. These were certain tests that the Institution continued to be appreciated by those in whose interest it was established, and led to the conclusion that, so long as its affairs were conducted as they hitherto had been, similar support and countenance would be extended to it. An enumeration of the papers read and discussed at the Ordinary General Meetings showed the variety of subjects which engaged the attention of engineers at the present day, and the extended area embraced within the operations of the members of the profession. Many of the papers read during the last two sessions had, at the request of the authors, already been issued in a separate form, so that the volumes *xxi.* and *xxii.* of the Minutes of Proceedings for the Sessions 1861-2 and 1862-3 might be said to be completed, and would be issued in the course of a few weeks. An index of the series, from *vol. i.* to *vol. xx.* inclusive, was in hand, and, though a task involving considerable labour, had already advanced fully one-half. Numerous applications having been received from the members for complete sets of the Minutes of Proceedings, the Council had determined to reprint some of the earlier numbers which were out of print, in order to be enabled to supply this evident want. The tabular statement of the transfers, elections, deceases, and resignations showed that the number of elections had been 74, of deaths 26, of resignations 5, and of erasures 3, leaving an effective increase of 40, and making the total number of members of all classes on the books on the 30th of November last 1040. This was an increase of nearly 39 per cent. in the last ten years, of which 4 per cent. occurred in the past session. During the last ten years the number of members had increased to a greater extent than the associates; for, whereas the numbers of those classes on the 30th of November, 1853, were 259 and 441 respectively, or in the proportion of 1 to 1.7, on the 30th of November last these numbers were 425 and 588, or as 1 to 1.4. The deaths during the past year had been:—J. Singleton Copley, Lord Lyndhurst, and W. Tooke, honorary members; T. Evans Blackwell, W. Clegam, R. Carden Despard, J. Fenton, J. Field, J. Glynn, M. Jones, W. Lewin, and Captain W. Scarth Moorsom, members; Beriah Botfield, M.P., A. Bremner, A. Brodie Cochrane, W. Coulthard, W. Cubitt, M.P., W. Dunlop, C. M. Jopling, F. Morton, Geddie Pearse, Apsley Pellatt, W. Rigby, C. W. Scott, J. Sherriffs, Admiral Washington, and W. R. Whitmore, associates. It would be observed, with deep regret, that, while the Institution had lost many useful and able members, there was included in the list one whose memory must ever be regarded with the liveliest interest; for to Mr. J. Field, to whom allusion was made, was due, in no small degree, the existence of the Institution of Civil Engineers. It was about the year 1816 that Mr. Henry Robinson Palmer, who was then articled to Mr. Bryan Donkin, first suggested to Mr. Field the idea of forming a Society of young Engineers, for their mutual improvement in mechanical and engineering science; and it was no doubt owing to Mr. Field's influence that Mr. William Nicholson Maudslay became the third who associated in this cause. These were shortly joined by five others—Mr. James Jones, Mr. Charles Collinge, Mr. James

Ashwell, Mr. Thomas Maudslay, and Mr. John T. Lethbridge—and, when the Institution was constituted on the 2nd of January, 1818, it comprised just these eight members, and so remained until the following year, when the number was increased by three. From that time to the present the numbers had steadily increased, the first great impetus being the acceptance of the office of President, in 1820, by Telford, under whose fostering hand the Institution grew rapidly in importance, and eventually acquired a permanent position among the scientific societies of the metropolis. The abstract of receipts and expenditure, as prepared by the auditors, showed that the income from all sources, during the twelve months from the 1st December, 1862, to the 30th November, 1863, was £3974. 17s. 1d., while the payments in the same period only amounted to £2740. 8s. 11d., leaving a balance of £1234. 8s. 2d. Of this, a sum of £1000 had been invested in the purchase of London and North-Western Railway Four per Cent. Debenture Stock, making a total of investments during the last five years, out of the general funds, of £3500. The realized property of the Institution now comprised:—1. General Funds, £9357. 0s. 8d.; 2. Building Fund, £1322. 2s. 11d.; and 3. Trust Fund, £9970. 12s. 7d.; making a total of £20,649. 16s. 2d., as against £19,041. 12s. 1d., at the same period last year. The Institution was now about to enter upon the forty-seventh year of its existence. It remained for the present members to emulate the example of those who had preceded them, and to sustain the high character for usefulness which the Institution had always enjoyed.

After the reading of the Report, Telford Medals and Telford Premiums of Books were presented to Messrs. J. Brunton, J. R. Mosse, Z. Colburn, and H. Hayter; Telford Premiums of Books to Messrs. W. M. Peniston, W. H. Preece, A. W. Makinson, D. Miller, R. Crawford, W. Cudworth, and J. G. Fraser; and a Watt Medal and the Manby Premium, in Books, to Mr. J. Fernie.

The thanks of the Institution were unanimously voted to the out-going officers and the Secretary.

The following gentlemen were elected to fill the several offices on the Council for the ensuing year:—John R. McClean, President; J. Fowler, C. H. Gregory, T. Hawksley, and J. S. Russell, Vice-Presidents; Sir William Armstrong, W. H. Barlow, N. Beardmore, J. Cubitt, T. E. Harrison, G. W. Hemans, J. Murray, G. R. Stephenson, C. Vignoles, and J. Whitworth, Members; and Colonel Jervois, C.B., R.E., and Mr. C. Waring, Associates.

Numismatic Society, Dec. 17. W. S. W. Vaux, Esq., President, in the chair. G. G. Brooks, H. F. Holt, and R. Spence, Esqs., were duly elected Members of the Society.—MR. ROLFE exhibited a brass medal of William Duke of Cumberland. Rev. J. H. Pollexfen exhibited a Roman coin-mould of Septimius Severus, found at Colchester, similar to those found at Lugwell Gate. Mr. Evans exhibited some British coins found in Kent, and read a communication by Mr. Charles Gordon of the Dover Museum.

Mr. G. Sim communicated an account of a find of Scottish coins and one Roman coin of Tetricus at Newstead, near Melrose, Roxburghshire.

Mr. Francis communicated an account of a find of Saxon coins at Ipswich.

Mr. Evans exhibited a penny of Ecgerht, with his bust on the obverse to the right, and the reverse *SVENE MONETA*, with the name of Eccebeort in monogram in the centre.

Mr. Vaux read a paper by himself, "On Finds of Roman coins in India, and Relations of Rome with the East."

Mr. Madden read a paper by himself, "On some Roman Coins found at Coimbatore, India."

Mr. T. Syme made a few remarks on a short-cross penny of Henry with the legend, *FIL. AIMER ON LVN*.

Institute of British Architects, Dec. 14. Mr. T. L. Donaldson, President, in the chair.—MR. W. TITE, M.P., late President, read a highly interesting paper on "Public Improvements in Paris and their Cost." A succinct history was given of the various great public works, dating from the extension of the Tuileries to the Louvre down to the present time, which had rendered Paris so celebrated as a city. Details of the cost to the state and to the municipality for the construction of new lines of public thoroughfare, boulevards, streets, &c., collected from the most authentic sources, were given, showing that an actual loss of 60 per cent. had resulted in a commercial point of view from those works. The financial plan on which these public improvements had been carried

out was explained, the state furnishing a subvention, upon an average, of one-half the outlay, whilst the other half was borne by the municipality, the interest and sinking fund on the part of the latter being met by the *octroi* upon provisions, &c., brought into the city. Mr. Tite stated it was not his intention to draw comparisons between London and Paris on the question of street improvements, but to show what public spirit had done in the latter city, and the cost at which it had been effected. It was recommended that a committee of the Institute should be appointed to watch the proposed plans for public works—railway and others—in London, and, when occasion arose, to make representations of the case in proper quarters. It was agreed that the subject should be resumed at the next meeting after the Christmas recess, when measures would be taken for memorializing the government for the appointment of a commission on the subject of public improvements in the metropolis, and other large cities and towns of the kingdom.

Statistical Society, Dec. 15. Col. W. H. Sykes, M.P., President, in the chair. Mr. W. H. Charlton of Hesleyside was elected a Member.—PROF. J. E. T. ROGERS of Oxford read a paper "On the Continuous Prices of Wheat for 105 years, from 1380 to 1484."—The writer observed that the prices of wheat annexed to his paper were taken from a series of farming accounts of Heyford Warren in Oxfordshire. The series is complete, except for the years 1381-3-6 and 1391. The prices, however, for these years are supplied from Weedon in Bucks, a place sufficiently near for the purposes of comparison. "It will be manifest," Professor Rogers remarked, "that, during the whole of the period before us, prices of food were, with few exceptions, remarkably low. They are far lower than those which prevailed during the fourteenth century, and that part of the thirteenth during which accounts of farm produce have come under my inspection. The harvests during this time must have been exceedingly abundant, more so, in all likelihood, than, *mutatis mutandis*, they were in the early half of the eighteenth century—a period which has always been cited as characteristically prosperous. Of the 105 years, 21 alone are relatively dear; in these the price is above 6s. per quarter. These 21 years are, 1389-90, 1400-1-2, 1408-9-16-18-28 and 1429, 1432-3-7 and 8, 1460-1-77-78-80 and 81. And in only two of these was the price indicative of famine—namely, 1390 and 1438. The highest price is much below that at which wheat was sold during two or three years of Edward II. and Edward III. In considering these prices, the value of the coin in which they are expressed has to be considered. The coin of the time was of customary fineness, the pound of silver containing 11 oz. 2 dwts. of pure metal and 18 dwts. alloy. But the currency was twice degraded during the period. Up to 1412 the pound sterling was equal in modern value to £2. 6s. 6d.; in 1412 it was diminished to £1. 18s. 9d., and in 1464 to £1. 11s. At the commencement of the period reviewed by the writer, the price of common labour was generally 3d. a day; of artisans, such as carpenters, masons, and sawyers, 4d. About the end of the first quarter of the fifteenth century these kinds of labour rose respectively to 4d. and to 6d., and so remained till the close of Henry VIII.'s reign. On the other hand the price of lead, wrought iron, and brass slightly falls; the price of these metals was about 3s. 4d.—1½d. and 3d. per lb. respectively." "Wheat was, I have no doubt," observed Professor Rogers, "the habitual food of the people. Of all the prices of grain the most abundant are those of wheat, barley, and oats. Of these, again, the largest information is that which can be supplied for wheat. Labourers rarely used oats, except on occasion, in their porridge. The breadth of wheat, barley, and oats sown on the land from year to year occupies by far the largest of the acreage. Most malt was used at harvest, when, as now, wages for day-work were much higher than at ordinary times. Corn was reaped at 1s. to 8d. per acre. Rye was a rare grain." The Heyford prices of wheat were then compared with the prices at Hornechurch in Essex and Stert in Wilts. As might be expected, the divergence of prices is greatest in the cheap years. It is a well-known economical law that the prices of wheat, or of any other absolute necessary of life, decrease in plentiful years at a very different ratio from that at which they increase in dear ones. The price of labour appears to have been higher in London than in the country by twenty-five per cent. A table of the prices of wool at Alton Barnes in Wiltshire

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was appended to the paper. It was noted that disease amongst flocks in the middle ages frequently destroyed one-fourth of the number kept. With respect to the productiveness of the land, it was stated that a crop of thirty bushels, on average land, under modern culture, is by no means excessive—land under tillage at the present time yields *two-and-a-half* times more than in the days of our forefathers. It was during this time that the class of small farmers arose. The fact is traceable not only in the suggestions of legislation and history, but in the change made by the owners of land in the management of their estates. In the fourteenth century the landlord invariably cultivated his own estate by a bailiff. Between the last thirty years of the fourteenth century and the first forty years of the fifteenth this practice is almost universally abandoned. The landlord ceases to cultivate his own land; his rents are gathered in by a collector; and a farmer cultivates the soil for his own profit at a fixed rent, sometimes for a long term, but with his landlord's stock, which he is pledged to restore, or its equivalent in money, at the expiry of his tenancy. After a short time, however, this practice ceases, the tenant finds stock himself, and occupies an estate either under a lease or very often by purchase.

The prices discussed in Professor Rogers's paper are shown in the subjoined table:—

I.—STATEMENT of the Prices of Wheat per Quarter at Heyford Warren, near Bicester, Oxford, from 1380 to 1484; at Hornchurch, Essex, from 1392 to 1454; and at Stert, near Devizes, Wilts, from 1393 to 1430.

| Years. | Price of Wheat per Quarter. | | | Years. | Price of Wheat per Quarter. | | |
|--------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------|--------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| | Heyford Warren, Oxon. | Hornchurch, Essex. | Stert, Wilts. | | Heyford Warren, Oxon. | Hornchurch, Essex. | Stert, Wilts. |
| 1380 | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | 1433 | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| 1381 | 4 0 | — | — | 1434 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1382 | 4 0 | — | — | 1435 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1383 | 4 0 | — | — | 1436 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1384 | 4 0 | — | — | 1437 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1385 | 4 0 | — | — | 1438 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1386 | 4 0 | — | — | 1439 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1387 | 4 0 | — | — | 1440 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1388 | 4 0 | — | — | 1441 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1389 | 4 0 | — | — | 1442 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1390 | 4 0 | — | — | 1443 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1391 | 4 0 | — | — | 1444 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1392 | 4 0 | — | — | 1445 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1393 | 4 0 | — | — | 1446 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1394 | 4 0 | — | — | 1447 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1395 | 4 0 | — | — | 1448 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1396 | 4 0 | — | — | 1449 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1397 | 4 0 | — | — | 1450 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1398 | 4 0 | — | — | 1451 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1399 | 4 0 | — | — | 1452 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1400 | 4 0 | — | — | 1453 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1401 | 4 0 | — | — | 1454 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1402 | 4 0 | — | — | 1455 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1403 | 4 0 | — | — | 1456 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1404 | 4 0 | — | — | 1457 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1405 | 4 0 | — | — | 1458 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1406 | 4 0 | — | — | 1459 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1407 | 4 0 | — | — | 1460 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1408 | 4 0 | — | — | 1461 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1409 | 4 0 | — | — | 1462 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1410 | 4 0 | — | — | 1463 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1411 | 4 0 | — | — | 1464 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1412 | 4 0 | — | — | 1465 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1413 | 4 0 | — | — | 1466 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1414 | 4 0 | — | — | 1467 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1415 | 4 0 | — | — | 1468 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1416 | 4 0 | — | — | 1469 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1417 | 4 0 | — | — | 1470 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1418 | 4 0 | — | — | 1471 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1419 | 4 0 | — | — | 1472 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1420 | 4 0 | — | — | 1473 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1421 | 4 0 | — | — | 1474 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1422 | 4 0 | — | — | 1475 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1423 | 4 0 | — | — | 1476 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1424 | 4 0 | — | — | 1477 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1425 | 4 0 | — | — | 1478 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1426 | 4 0 | — | — | 1479 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1427 | 4 0 | — | — | 1480 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1428 | 4 0 | — | — | 1481 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1429 | 4 0 | — | — | 1482 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1430 | 4 0 | — | — | 1483 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1431 | 4 0 | — | — | 1484 | 4 0 | — | — |
| 1432 | 4 0 | — | — | | | | |

Note.—The letter (w) in the first column means that the prices for the years to which it is annexed are taken from farm accounts at Weedon in Buckinghamshire.

II.—STATEMENT of the Price of Wool per Tod of 21 lbs. at Alton Barnes, Wilts, from 1376 to 1432.

| Years. | Price of Wool per Tod of 21 lbs. at Alton Barnes, Wilts. | | Years. | Price of Wool per Tod of 21 lbs. at Alton Barnes, Wilts. | | Years. | Price of Wool per Tod of 21 lbs. at Alton Barnes, Wilts. | |
|--------|--|----|--------|--|----|--------|--|----|
| | s. | d. | | s. | d. | | s. | d. |
| 1376 | 7 | 0 | 1385 | 5 | 0 | 1414 | 5 | 0 |
| 1377 | 7 | 0 | 1386 | 5 | 0 | 1415 | 5 | 0 |
| 1378 | 7 | 0 | 1387 | 5 | 0 | 1416 | 5 | 0 |
| 1379 | 7 | 0 | 1388 | 5 | 0 | 1417 | 5 | 0 |
| 1380 | 7 | 0 | 1389 | 5 | 0 | 1418 | 5 | 0 |
| 1381 | 7 | 0 | 1390 | 5 | 0 | 1419 | 5 | 0 |
| 1382 | 7 | 0 | 1391 | 5 | 0 | 1420 | 5 | 0 |
| 1383 | 7 | 0 | 1392 | 5 | 0 | 1421 | 5 | 0 |
| 1384 | 7 | 0 | 1393 | 5 | 0 | 1422 | 5 | 0 |
| 1385 | 7 | 0 | 1394 | 5 | 0 | 1423 | 5 | 0 |
| 1386 | 7 | 0 | 1395 | 5 | 0 | 1424 | 5 | 0 |
| 1387 | 7 | 0 | 1396 | 5 | 0 | 1425 | 5 | 0 |
| 1388 | 7 | 0 | 1397 | 5 | 0 | 1426 | 5 | 0 |
| 1389 | 7 | 0 | 1398 | 5 | 0 | 1427 | 5 | 0 |
| 1390 | 7 | 0 | 1399 | 5 | 0 | 1428 | 5 | 0 |
| 1391 | 7 | 0 | 1400 | 5 | 0 | 1429 | 5 | 0 |
| 1392 | 7 | 0 | 1401 | 5 | 0 | 1430 | 5 | 0 |
| 1393 | 7 | 0 | 1402 | 5 | 0 | 1431 | 5 | 0 |
| 1394 | 7 | 0 | 1403 | 5 | 0 | 1432 | 5 | 0 |
| 1395 | 7 | 0 | 1404 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1396 | 7 | 0 | 1405 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1397 | 7 | 0 | 1406 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1398 | 7 | 0 | 1407 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1399 | 7 | 0 | 1408 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1400 | 7 | 0 | 1409 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1401 | 7 | 0 | 1410 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1402 | 7 | 0 | 1411 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1403 | 7 | 0 | 1412 | 5 | 0 | | | |
| 1404 | 7 | 0 | 1413 | 5 | 0 | | | |

The President read a paper upon the "Prices of Edibles and Potables in 1506."

Philological Society, Dec. 18. Thomas Watts, Esq., in the chair.—THE paper, "Language no Test of Race," was read by the Rev. G. C. Geldart, who stated that, when, in 1858, he brought before the British Association the views he was then about to reproduce, he had to encounter the opposition of all the eminent philologists and ethnologists then present; although, so far as he could judge from the reports of the Association for the present year, Section E had now entirely come round to the point to which five years ago he laboured to bring it. He believed it impossible that any one could compare the known facts of the dispersion of races with the actual distribution of languages without discovering how completely the testimony of the one contradicts the apparent evidence of the other. If a person acquainted with the present distribution of languages in the British Isles, but entirely ignorant of British history, were to draw conclusions as to the origin of the different populations from the languages they now speak, he would obtain nothing but errors. He would class the Cornishman, the Cumbrian, and the Strath-Clydesman along with the Londoner, and would separate all three from the Welshman; he would ignore the Scandinavian extraction of the English-speaking Shetlander and of the masses of Norse descent in the Highlands and Hebrides who now know only Gaelic; and in Ireland he would gain no consciousness of the fact that the people most specially Celtic in speech are the offspring of Saxon immigrants. Or, if in the (late) United States he applied the term "Anglo-Saxon race" (as is commonly done) to the English-speaking people there, he would be corrected by Mr. Bristed's* confession that only one-third of them had any right to the title. Yet the position of such a person is only that of every ethnologist who attempts to draw conclusions as to prehistoric times from linguistic facts existing in historic times. The ethnologist who reasons from the distribution of languages at any given epoch may be as completely mistaken with respect to periods previous to that as any one who now draws his inferences from the languages used in modern Britain. The long-continued employment of language as an ethnological test was only to be accounted for by the neglect on the part of inquirers to bring together under one view the amount of discrepancy between the glossological and the ethnological evidence. This was then done at length. It was shown that the Israelites, the race most strictly marked out from all others, never possessed any national language at all, but spoke first that of Canaan, then that of Chaldean; afterwards partly Chaldean and partly Greek, and finally all the different tongues of the countries over which they were dispersed. Arabic, now used more or less by eighty millions, was not the native tongue of these populations, but was imposed upon them by the Muslim invaders. In Turkey the numerous Christians who now know nothing but Turkish could not possibly have any Turkish blood in their veins. In the Indo-European area the Romanic languages, which stretch from Portugal to Wallachia, were the type, not of a race, but of an empire, under which all these countries were once united. The Roman armies and the Latin-speaking population in these regions were no more Roman by blood than the Sepoys and the educated Hindoos who speak English are British. In modern Greece, Turkey, &c., the proportion of Hellenic blood in those who are most zealous for the use and diffusion of the existing Greek language could not be more than infinitesimal. In Germany at least one-third of those who speak Teutonic dialects were of Wendish origin. In the Scandinavian countries the identity of language between Norway and Denmark imported, not that these nations were, physically, more nearly related than either of them is to the Swede, but that they were long united under one crown. Other instances were pointed out in the Crimea, Bulgaria, Hungary, among Ugrian tribes elsewhere, in Turkistan, Persia, India, Cape of Good Hope, Madagascar, New Zealand, South America, among negroes in various parts of the world, &c., &c. It was then asked, What fact of a nation's life its mother-tongue typified, if not its parentage? The answer was, the language of a nation at any time represents the influence which up to that time has predominated in the formation of its character. A people's language indicates not its birth, but its breeding. Now this predominant influence may have been:—1. Civil or political, as in nine cases out of ten it has been; 2. Religious; 3. Intellectual or literary; 4. Social; i.e., relating to general habits, customs, fashions,

* *The English Language in America*, Cambridge Essays, 1855, p. 75. Mr. B. is a native of New York.

commerce, or intercourse; or it may have been made up of the aggregate effect of any number of these, in any degrees or forms of combination. This principle was applied in detail to the different instances above-mentioned, and shown to account for them satisfactorily; but philologists were exhorted, if that solution of the difficulty was considered inadequate, not to rest until a perfect one had been discovered.

MEETINGS NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY, JANUARY 4th.

ENTOMOLOGICAL, at 7.—12, Bedford Row.
LONDON INSTITUTION, at 7.—Finsbury Circus. "On the Classification, Organization, and Fossil Remains of Fishes." Richard Owen, Esq., F.R.S.
BRITISH ARCHITECTS, at 8.—9, Conduit Street, Hanover Square.
MEDICAL, at 8.30.—32A, George Street, Hanover Square.

TUESDAY, JANUARY 5th.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 8.—Albemarle Street. "On Electricity at Rest and in Motion." Juvenile Lectures. Prof. Tyndall.
PATHOLOGICAL, at 8.—53, Berners Street, Oxford Street. Anniversary.
PHOTOGRAPHIC, at 8.—King's College, Strand. Discussion on the Early Sun-Pictures.
ANTHROPOLOGICAL, at 8.—4, St. Martin's Place. Annual General Meeting. Election of Officers and Council. The President will deliver his Annual Address.

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 6th.

GEOLOGICAL, at 8.—Somerset House. 1. "On the recent Geological Changes in Somersetshire, and on their date relatively to the Existence of Man and certain of the Extinct Mammalia." G. S. Poole, Esq. Communicated by Sir Charles Lyell, F.R.S., V.P.G.S. 2. "On the Beds superior to the Eocene in Suffolk and Essex." Searles V. Wood, jun., Esq. Communicated by Searles V. Wood, Esq., F.G.S.
PHARMACEUTICAL, at 8.—17, Bloomsbury Square.
ROYAL SOCIETY OF LITERATURE, at 8.30.—4, St. Martin's Place.

THURSDAY, JANUARY 7th.

ROYAL, at 8.30.—Burlington House.
ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 8.—Albemarle Street. "On Electricity at Rest and Electricity in Motion." Juvenile Lectures. Professor Tyndall.
LONDON INSTITUTION, at 7.—Finsbury Circus. "Cyanogen, Hydrocyanic Acid (Prussic Acid). Remarkable Cyanides." J. A. Wanklyn, Esq., F.R.S.E., F.C.S.
FRIDAY, JANUARY 8th.
ASTRONOMICAL, at 8.—Somerset House.
ARCHAEOLOGICAL INSTITUTE, at 4.—1, Burlington Gardens.

ART.

A RETROSPECT OF ART IN 1863.

IN the interest of our readers it may, perhaps, be worth while to give a concise recapitulation of the principal subjects which have been either noticed or discussed in the Art columns of this journal during the past year. The subjects, apart from the criticism that has been applied to them, furnish some of the materials for a current history of art in England; and, for convenience of reference, we will indicate them in the order of their appearance in our columns.

At the commencement of the year three art exhibitions were chiefly to be noted in London. The most attractive of these was the display of sketches and studies by the members of the Old Water-Colour Society in Pall Mall. The exhibition was novel and experimental; but it became almost immediately an established success, and probably the first of a long series of winter exhibitions which are likely to secure as great an amount of public favour as the annual summer show of this Society has invariably obtained. The exhibition of Mr. Leech's painted sketches at the Egyptian Hall had already attracted public attention. The collected works of George Cruikshank were to be seen at Exeter Hall; and the artist had the satisfaction of hearing more emphatically expressed the approval which has been so honourably won in the labours of a long and useful life, during which his pencil has never been used except in the interests of virtue or the satire of vice.

The distress in Lancashire caused two exhibitions to be opened in January in aid of its relief. One of these was provided by the Institute of Water-Colour Painters, and consisted of drawings and sketches by members of their own body, and by other artists who desired to help forward the good work which at that time engaged the chief share of public attention. The collection was first shown in the German Gallery, New Bond Street, and afterwards at Manchester. The other exhibition was provided chiefly by amateurs, but was also enriched by contributions from professional painters. A large sum of money was added to the funds of the Relief Committees, the proceeds of these two exhibitions. The latter especially became very popular; and it may be taken as the best amateur collection that has been seen in London.

The Photographic Exhibition was opened in January in Suffolk Street. It was not signalized by any novelty, although the general perfection of the specimens exhibited was worthy of remark.

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A winter exhibition was opened in Berners Street, in which the public had an opportunity of seeing the works of young painters in more favourable situations than are provided for them in the established exhibitions.

In the month of February designs were submitted to the Dean and Chapter of St. Paul's, for the proposed mosaics in the apse, by Messrs. Watts and Leighton, and the Baron de Triqueti; Mr. Stephens, who was to have been the fourth competitor, did not enter the lists. We believe that the choice has since been made in favour of the Baron de Triqueti, and that from his designs the mosaics will be executed. About the same time it was decided to employ Herr Schnorr, the great German designer, to make designs for the cathedral windows, so that, although the proposed decoration of the metropolitan church (if carried out) will be under the direction of the cathedral surveyor, himself an accomplished English architect, the two main branches of its decoration will be placed in the hands of foreign artists.

The British Institution was opened in February for the exhibition of modern pictures. There were very few good works, and the display was not creditable to English art. The Society of British Artists opened their gallery in Suffolk Street in March. The exhibition was remarkable for some good landscape-painting, and for the absence of figure subjects of any importance. The strength of the collection was increased by the collapse of the Society which rented the Portland Gallery in Regent Street, the members of which sent some of their best works for exhibition in Suffolk Street. In March, an exhibition of sculpture, intended to be annual, was held for the first time in the rooms of the Architectural Institute in Conduit Street, and became part of the exhibition set forth by the Society of Architects. The collection of sculpture was, for the most part, beneath notice; and it may be a question with the architects whether a very good display of sculpture might not seriously affect the attractiveness of their own works. On the other hand, as the work of an architect can only properly be seen and judged of when it is embodied in stone, and his drawings and plans are only interesting to a professional eye, the admission of the sculptor, to share with him the exhibition space at his disposal, might result in an increase of public interest and of pecuniary profit.

M. Gambart's exhibition of French and Belgian art, in Pall Mall, called forth some interesting correspondence on the subject of art-teaching in England and in France, which will be found in the April and May numbers of THE READER.

An exhibition of pictures was opened by the Society of Female Artists in their newly-acquired premises in Pall Mall. The collection was very small; and, as might be expected in the youth of the Society, it was composed of drawings of very unequal merit. It is fair to say that the best of our female artists did not exhibit their works in the gallery.

The water-colour exhibitions opened, with the flowers, in May. These are the favourite resorts of the art-loving public, whose taste they hit exactly. The school is thought to be essentially English, and its products are admirably adapted for English homes. The societies are prosperous and popular; and they deserve to be so. If the existence of two societies, and the probable institution of a third, be less creditable to English art than characteristic of the English combative and competitive spirit, it must be remembered that they are not, like the Royal Academy, *quasi* public and *quasi* private bodies, but simply companies, enjoying no privileges that they do not earn for themselves, and acknowledging no duties but those which are usually thought to be incumbent upon all private enterprises.

The great art exhibition of the season at the Royal Academy was marked by the most bitter controversy that we can remember, raised by what was taken to be an unfair exclusion of certain pictures and an unfair hanging of others. The constitution of the Royal Academy being at the time the subject of inquiry before a royal commission, advantage was taken of these alleged grievances to draw up a memorial for presentation at one of the sittings of the commissioners. The matter was fortunately taken out of the hands of the more violent opponents of the existing institution, and a memorial, couched in very moderate terms, setting forth the nature of the reforms considered to be indispensable to the fair working of the institution, was agreed to and signed by the most influential artists outside the pale of academic honours, and presented by Mr. E. Armitage at one of the last sittings of the commissioners. The

memorial is printed in the report of the proceedings; and the temper and moderation displayed in it are highly creditable to the profession.

The exhibition of the Royal Academy was considered to be an average good one. By the public Mr. Millais's pictures of children were more appreciated than his really great work of "St. Agnes' Eve," the only work of high art quality, with whatever faults it may be credited, by which the exhibition will be remembered.

The British Institution was opened for the exhibition of pictures by the old masters in June. Besides the usual number of spurious originals and bad copies, there were two fine Murillos, a much injured Holy Family by Titian, and some magnificent portraits, more especially those by Rembrandt of the Burgomaster Six and of Berghem, with the companion portraits of their wives. The room which it is now usual to devote to modern English pictures was distinguished by a tolerably complete collection of the works of Romney.

A permanent exhibition of Scandinavian pictures was opened in the course of the summer in the Haymarket. Though called Scandinavian, the school is really that of Düsseldorf, of which it bears very distinct traces, and wherein probably most of the Scandinavian painters have received their education.

In fresco or wall painting the chief works that have been carried on or completed during the past year are Mr. F. Leighton's composition representing "The Ten Virgins," executed over the altar in Lyndhurst Church; Mr. E. Armitage's fresco of "Christ and His Apostles," painted in the apse of St. John's Church in Duncan Terrace; Mr. MacIise's "Meeting of Wellington and Blücher on the Field of Waterloo," and Mr. Herbert's "Children of Israel at Sinai," both of which are executed in the House of Lords.

The late Mr. Burford's panorama in Leicester Square has been finally closed. A moving panorama, illustrative of the Prince of Wales's tour in the East, by Mr. Telbin, and one purporting to illustrate the chief events of the civil war in America by Mr. Church, have been lately noticed in our columns.

Of exhibited single pictures during the season the most remarkable was the "Icebergs on the Coast of Labrador" by Mr. Church. A picture of "The Last Judgment" by a (not the) Mr. Armitage met with no success. A large copy of Da Vinci's "Cenacola" was exhibited in Bond Street. The copy was made by Mr. Selous, but it was not suggestive of the great original.

Mr. P. G. Hamerton, the author of "A Painter's Camp in the Highlands," has become the lessee of some rooms in Piccadilly, wherein are exhibited the pictures he painted during his sojourn on Loch Awe, as well as other landscapes which he has since painted. Mr. Hamerton has explained the motive and intention of his pictures in a small catalogue, which is presented to the visitors. No admission fee is necessary.

A small collection of pictures rejected by the Royal Academy was exhibited in the great room of the Cosmopolitan Club. Although there were really meritorious works in the collection, it was chiefly looked upon and made use of as a weapon of offence against the Royal Academy. The exhibitions of pictures belonging to Mr. Wallis and to Mr. Flatou were opened in November. Many of these works are well known to the public already; others have been painted expressly for these well-known dealers.

The picture sales during the past year have been unprecedented, whether we consider the number of works disposed of, the renown of some of the collections, the merits of certain pictures, or the high prices realized. A report of these sales has appeared from time to time among the Art Notes of this journal. A spirit of gambling appears to have taken possession of the art market; consequently a fictitious value has been affixed to names, while the absence of any true discrimination of the qualities by which a work of art should be distinguished, is most mortifying to painters and to all intelligent lovers of art.

Some of the most able painters have passed away in the past year of grace. In France, Horace Vernet and Eugène Delacroix; among ourselves, Abram Solomon, Augustus Leopold Egg, William Mulready, Charles Robert Cockerell, W. Duffield, and J. D. Harding. Mr. Sheepshanks, the munificent donor of the collection that bears his name, has also been called from us in the past year.

Messrs. W. Boxall, F. Goodall, E. W. Cooke, and J. E. Millais have been made academicians during the past year. Mr. Witherington has become an honorary retired academician.

A careful review of what has been done in art would probably lead us to the conclusion that, while English artists, as a body, have at this time attained a higher level of excellence than has hitherto been reached, we must still admit that, of works that will live and be remembered, we have produced but one here and there, while Reynolds, Wilkie, and Turner in their day filled the land with their glory.

ART NOTES.

A NEW art-journal is announced to appear in monthly parts, under the title of *The Art Student* the first part of which will be published on the 1st of next month by Messrs. Hall, Smart, and Allen of Paternoster Row.

MESSRS. MOORE, M'QUEEN, & Co. of Berners Street announce a splendid series of large chromolithograph pictures of Views of "Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and the Holy Places," consisting of thirty plates at as many guineas for the prints, and forty-five guineas for the proofs.

A most valuable aid to buyers of pictures by the old masters is M. Theodore Lejeune's "Guide Théorique et Pratique de l'Amateur de Tableaux," of which the second volume has just appeared, showing how to distinguish copies from originals by "Études sur les Imitateurs et les Copistes des Maîtres de toutes les Écoles, dont les œuvres forment la base ordinaire des Galeries."

A MAGNIFICENT volume, with plates executed in chromolithography, large woodcuts, and lithographic illustrations, has just been got up at the expense of the Emperor of Russia as a memorial of his coronation at Moscow in 1856. It is entitled "Description du Sacre et du Couronnement de leurs Majestés Impériales, l'Empereur Alexandre II., et l'Impératrice Marie Alexandrovna," and is published at £35.

MUSIC.

MUSICAL NOTES.

CHRISTMAS music is, as it ought to be, more the music of the fireside than the concert-room. The singing which has had the largest audience this week has been that of the New Year's bells, and, for playing, perhaps Sir Roger de Coverley has had the best of it. Two good performances of serious music have nevertheless drawn good audiences of Londoners—a "Messiah" at Her Majesty's Theatre on Christmas Eve, and a "Creation" by the National Choral Society on Wednesday last. At the first of these Mdle. Titiens' magnificent voice, most effective in "Rejoice greatly," but most worthily used, perhaps, in "I know that my Redeemer liveth," astonished all who heard it; and the splendid resonance of the theatre, rickety old building as it is, but incomparable for sound, gave a brilliancy to the singing of an "occasional" chorus which surprised ears accustomed to hear the same music as commonly done in that worst of all conceivable music-rooms—Exeter Hall. On both evenings Mr. Santley's unsurpassed singing was a conspicuous feature. Every fresh appearance now testifies to the prodigious popularity of this great artist, a popularity exceeding that of any bass singer whom we can recollect since the death of the elder Lablache; and never was a success more thoroughly deserved. At Exeter Hall on Wednesday night he accepted an almost irresistible *encore* in "Now Heaven in fullest glory shone." Mr. Sims Reeves, a few minutes after, declined to submit to a like demand in the exhausting song "In native worth," and for this was actually hissed by a few of the more vehement of the enthusiasts. One would have hoped that a love of Haydn's delicious melodies would have been an index of better manners than this. It should remind the rational majority of concert-goers that they ought to support a singer against the unthinking tyranny of the noisy few.

We mentioned lately in these columns that part of a mass by Gounod was sung at All Saints' Church, Margaret Street. We are requested to say that it was not at that church, but in the neighbouring building, St. Andrew's, Wells Street, that the music was performed. The adaptation includes the *Kyrie*, *Credo*, *Sanctus*, and *Gloria*. If the mass in question be, as we presume it is, the "Grande Messe Solennelle," produced some years ago by Mr. Hullah at St. Martin's Hall, it is very fine music, and solemn enough for the service of any ritual. The single, and of course not by any means unexceptionable, performance of it by Mr. Hullah's choir, made a strong impression at the time. The intrinsic beauty of the music was felt by most of those who heard it,

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THE DRAMA.

THE NEW CHRISTMAS PIECES.

though the criticism of the day denounced it as worthless. The work would probably please as much, and be more respectfully treated, if it was now to be performed by one of our choral societies. A little time ago no pianoforte score of it was obtainable; the production of one would help to make the work more largely known.

THE English Opera at Covent Garden has all but yielded, for the moment, to the overpowering attractions of Pantomime. The drolleries of Mr. Payne as the *St. George* of dragon celebrity are giving Miss Pyne some repose. Miss Hiles and a small company are playing an act of the "Bohemian Girl" by way of curtain-lift.

In recent accounts of country choral gatherings we have noticed that the bass singing of Mr. David Lambert, late of the Windsor Choir, but now, apparently, of Durham Cathedral, has excited attention. This gentleman is gifted with a voice of extraordinary compass in its lower tones. At a madrigal concert in the Hall of Christ Church, Oxford, last month he gave, at the close of Callcott's "Queen of the Valley," "a fine note on double C, which was heard distinctly at the end of the large hall." A friend tells us that Mr. Lambert has in his hearing taken the bass part of "Non nobis, Domine," in octaves, beginning on the double A. But this must have been surely an aural deception.

MUSICAL newspapers are not so very scarce in England as they were till recently. Three new ones have been started in London during the past year or two. The most important of these is *The Orchestra*, issued weekly by Messrs. Cramer & Co., the columns of which contain notices of musical performances in most of the large towns in England. Another paper, called *The Choir and Musical Record*, is addressed to a more special object, but is thoroughly deserving of support. It is an eight-page quarto sheet, published weekly, along with four pages of choral music, for the small sum of one penny. It discusses matters interesting to choirs and choristers, and all questions touching the use of music in church services. Dr. Rimbault and Mr. Chope are frequent contributors, and are understood to be managers of the paper. It deals with the antiquities of the subject, publishing old treatises and ancient unpublished music. Much of the latter is valuable as being entirely unobtainable elsewhere; but some of it is too dry to be useful. A service in the "Dorian Mode" by old Adrian Batten comes into this category. What honest unsophisticated ears can now derive pleasure from the anti-musical harshness of the "Dorian Mode"? The editors hold strong views on some questions of taste and ecclesiastical procedure. Jackson's "Te Deum," for instance, is denounced as "atrocious;" but what "Te Deum" would not soon become the subject of strong language if treated as cruelly as poor Jackson? Differences of opinion apart, however, all interested in popular music or church singing will find this little paper well worth buying. *The Musical Standard* is a bi-monthly and two-penny publication, now about eighteen months old. Its contents, notwithstanding its very general title, seem to show that it is chiefly an organ of organists. The question discussed in its columns with most warmth is that of the relation of amateur to professional musicians, especially as touching the connexion between precentors and organists. But it handles, also, other topics of wider interest, and always in a way which shows that its conductors, whatever are their opinions, are zealous for the advancement of music as an art more than as a profession. Its criticisms, too, are written in a spirited and independent tone, which seems to indicate that the periodical has no connexion with any commercial interests. While on this topic we may mention that Messrs. Novello's *Musical Times*, which has long been universally known as giving an excellent monthly supply of good and cheap part-music, has been of late expanding its range by the insertion of more original articles on musical subjects.

THE first noticeable concert of the new year will be one devoted to the cause of a very worthy charity. Madame Goldschmidt sings, on the 5th inst., at Exeter Hall, in "The Messiah," for the benefit of the "Friends of the Clergy." No one who heard her divine singing of the same divine music, in the same place, a few years back, can ever forget it. Her liberality should bring a golden stream into the orphan treasure-box.

MUSIC FOR NEXT WEEK.

JANUARY 4th to 9th.

TUESDAY.—"The Messiah" (M. and Madame Goldschmidt, &c.), Exeter Hall, 7.30 p.m.
St. George's R.V. Concert (Sims Reeves, &c.), St. James's Hall, 8 p.m.

WITH hardly an exception the whole of the holiday pieces brought out in London on Boxing-night met with decided success—a result gratifying alike to managers and the public. By the managers it would appear that really extraordinary pains have been taken this Christmas to provide characteristic entertainments of surpassing attractiveness. At Drury Lane, the Royal English Opera, and the Princess's, scenes of astonishing beauty and magnificence have been produced, evidently without a thought as to cost of material or extent of labour; and the same spirit appears to have ruled in most of the other London theatres. Upon the whole, the scene-painters and the *costumiers* come in for the lion's share of the well-deserved applause, the writers not having achieved any remarkable victory. The pen has done its work effectively, but its brightest touches appear colourless in juxtaposition with those of the rainbow-tinted pencils of Beverley, Grieve, and Lloyds; and the wit must be bright indeed that can enter into successful competition with the dazzling beams of the universally-used lime-light. We refer here more particularly to the writing and embellishments of the Pantomimes. Within the magic circle of Burlesque and Extravaganza pen and pencil hold their own on more equal terms, and pen must struggle but feebly if it only succeeds in coming off second best. Such a veteran pen as that of Mr. H. J. Byron may, of course, be always expected to do certain execution; and the four works produced by him on Boxing-night achieved the looked-for success. Not that they are one and all entirely up to the full H.-J.-Byronic standard, but sufficiently near to bear the stamp of their confectioner's legitimate manufacture. His "Orpheus and Eurydice," from being produced at the Strand, naturally takes the lead in importance, as it does in respect of design and artistic finish. In point of numbers and sprightliness, the parodies and wild dances peculiar to his compositions are remarkable in this piece, his choice of airs taking a wide range—from high Italian *scena* to low but ear-taking negro-melody. In this department of his work he has been most ably seconded by Mr. Frank Musgrave, who has become an adept in this kind of musical translation. The story of "Orpheus and Eurydice," though it has again and again served the turn of the opera and burlesque writer, is not one that lends itself well to comic treatment, and Mr. Byron has perhaps done as much with it as could be done. *Orpheus* he has turned into an unsuccessful writer of fiction; *Eurydice* he represents as meeting fully half-way the over-assiduous attentions of a young sporting character named *Aristæus*, King of Corinth. It is while flying the too pressing suit of this gentleman that she is stung by the serpent and made ready for Hades. One of the funniest scenes of the piece represents a matrimonial jangle between *Pluto* and *Proserpine*. On the arrival of *Eurydice* beyond the Styx, *Pluto* instantly falls in love with her, and behaves so badly that *Proserpine* insists upon the new-comer being sent away, though she herself is smitten at the first sight of *Orpheus*, who has arrived in search of his wife. The fatal back-look Mr. Byron has made to be consequent on the provocation of a sounding kiss given by *Pluto* to the departing fair one. *Orpheus* is played by Miss Marie Wilton, whose reception after a long absence from the stage on which she has achieved so many triumphs was hailed with enthusiasm. She comes back with all her well-known powers unimpaired, and, even if the burlesque were in itself less worthy of applause, would secure its attractiveness by her sole presence. The acting throughout is full of spirit, and the allusions to public events and topics were made by each and all with thorough appreciation of their point. The interpolation of a baby into the household of *Orpheus* and *Eurydice* is not the least happy of Mr. Byron's additions to the well-known story; he has, however, gone a step further, and given the baby a nurse, a Grecian "Tilly Slowboy," played by Mr. A. Wood, which proves to be one of the most amusing characters of the *dramatis personæ*. The scenery, painted by Mr. Charles Fenton, who plays *Charon* with a great deal of rough humour, and dances a nautical hornpipe with a spirit that electrifies the gallery, is extremely bright and pleasing. The second of Mr. Byron's pieces, founded on the story of "Fortunio," is a far less elaborate work, but was perfectly successful on its first production. One of the most noticeable points in connexion with it was the re-appearance of Mr. Clarke, so

long associated with the Strand Theatre. He plays a haggish old queen driven to the brink of madness by the rejection of her love by the splendid *Fortunio*. The mixture of fondness with ready malevolence was given with a power almost inimitable, and won the loudest applause. The *Fortunio* of Mrs. A. Mellon was full of her own grace. At the St. James's, the third of Mr. Byron's pieces achieved a real, if not remarkable success. It is unusually slight in texture, and affords little more than an opportunity for Mr. J. L. Toole to appear in a series of well-known characters, from the "Mrs. Brown" of Mr. Arthur Sketchley to the "Lady Audley" of Miss Braddon. As *Lady Audley*, in conjunction with Mr. Paul Bedford as *George Talboys*, the tragic events of Audley Court were reproduced by him with hilarious results certainly never contemplated by their authoress. The piece terminates with a very graceful scene, the central objects of which are two medallions of the Prince and Princess of Wales. As we have said, the piece rests mainly with Mr. Toole; Miss Fanny Josephs and Miss Cottrell, however, lent efficient aid. The fourth and last of Mr. Byron's Christmas ventures, the pantomime of "St. George and the Dragon," at Covent Garden, gives ample room and verge enough to Mr. W. H. Payne and his son; and perhaps that is all that need be said of it. The fight between *St. George* and the *Dragon* proves in the hands of these renowned pantomimists a screamingly comic scene. This, with a transformation scene of almost unexampled splendour, painted by Mr. Grieve, and called the "Hall of Chivalry," secured for it an enthusiastic reception.

The pantomime of "Sindbad the Sailor," at Drury Lane, is fully equal to any of the great works of that class produced in later years. It is hardly possible to escape the use of exaggerative terms in speaking of the beauty of Mr. W. Beverley's scenery, with which the fame of these pieces is indissolubly connected. In the present work, there are at least three scenes in which all the great characteristics of his works stand out in the highest degree of prominence. His "transformation scenes" have a European celebrity; and that with which the present piece concludes will bear comparison with any that he has previously produced for grace and magnificence. The most admirable scene, however—which we can describe only as being dreamlike in its loveliness—is called "The Mountains of the Moon," and is supposed to represent the source of the Nile. Real water and the exquisitely illusive powers of the lime-light are employed with the most perfect success we have ever seen. A ballet of most original design is performed in this scene by a corps of one hundred *coryphées*, whose dresses, actions, and evolutions harmonize with the scene with singularly poetical effect. The author, Mr. E. L. Blanchard, has used so much of the "Sindbad" story as has enabled him to introduce the incident of the "Old Man of the Sea" (played by Master Percy Roselle, a child actor of truly extraordinary power), and the escape from the Diamond Valley through the medium of the great Roc. The reception given to the piece was most enthusiastic, and certainly not beyond its deserts.

At the Princess's, the scene-painter has achieved such a triumph as will make the present year's pantomime memorable in the history of that theatre. A lake of real water, shown under every effect of light from "morn to dewy eve," is made the centre of a world of fairy beauty, of which we can only say that it seems to exist.

Although a new Christmas piece formed part of the Haymarket bill on Boxing-night, the interest of the night's performance centered in the re-appearance of Mr. Sothorn as the great *Lord Dundreary*. The boisterous reception given to him would almost warrant the belief that "Our American Cousin" is destined to enter upon a new and prolonged career of popularity. Great alterations have been made in the plot, the character of which may be suggested by saying that, as now presented, the piece is more Dundrearyish than ever. Of Mr. William Brough's extravaganza of "King Arthur" we cannot, unfortunately, speak very admiringly. He has chosen a bad subject for his purpose, and he has conquered none of the difficulties of his task. His puns and allusions to popular topics are neat enough, but the action of his piece is heavy and wearisome, and he has helped to make it so by the injudicious selection of music far too difficult for any of his singers to execute, with the exception of Miss Louisa Keeley. This lady sings deliciously, and looks the part of the youthful Arthur to perfection; but she appears not to exert herself in acting the part, and consequently fails to make any strong impression on the audience.

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